

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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Educational News and Editorial Comment

PREPARATION FOR BANKING

The *Bankers Magazine* has an article and an editorial in a recent issue which will be of interest to high-school officers. The editorial describes the situation which prompted the article as follows:

There is presented elsewhere in this number of the *Bankers Magazine* an article by Irwin G. Jennings, assistant secretary of the Metropolitan Trust Company of New York, on the subject of "Solving the Problem of Supplying Junior Clerks for the Financial Institutions of Our Great Cities." This title implies that at present there exists a lack of available raw material out of which the future bankers of the country are to be formed. Undoubtedly this lack has received fresh attention owing to the fact that many banks have been short-

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handed to an extent greater than usual because of the demands made on their employees for military and naval service. When normal conditions are restored the supply of bank men will be more plentiful.

But probably the real point of the matter does not relate so much to the numerical supply as to the quality of the material available for bank work. . . .

Mr. Jennings rightly considers banking of great importance to the community, and his plea that its ranks be filled from a body of specially selected young men, preferably from the country, has much in its favor. He proposes that the selection of men for bank work in the larger cities be made by a co-operative effort on the part of the local high school and the local bank; that the young men so chosen be given positions in the city banks, paid a fair salary, and that they be permitted to continue their educational studies until they complete, if desired, the equivalent of a college course. The city banks are to form associations which would assure continuous employment, under proper limitations, to the young men and would have some general oversight of their welfare.

The banking business of the United States needs, as never before, trained and educated men, and the suggestion of Mr. Jennings may afford a practicable means of securing them. Some banks have been doing as individual institutions practically what he believes might more advantageously be done collectively.

It would react favorably upon popular opinion about banking if it could be shown that the bankers of the country are taking a deep interest in the young men, without purely selfish motives, and it ought to be of great value to any community if some of its boys every year, while pursuing their college studies, could receive the sound and varied business training which the offices of the great city banks afford.

The article by Mr. Jennings describes the following plan for meeting the situation:

1. The formation in each of our great cities of an association of banks, trust companies and financial institutions for the purpose of bringing into their employ as junior clerks the young men graduates of small city and village high schools.
2. The administration of the affairs of such association in general by a board of trustees and in detail by a paid director or secretary.
3. The planning and raising of a budget for financing such organization by contributions from the member banks based upon the estimated number of junior clerks to be furnished by the association.
4. The organization, in selected small cities and villages supporting high schools, of an interest in the purposes of the central association under the leadership of a committee composed of the principal of the high school and one or more bankers of the locality.
5. The selection by the above committee of two or more graduates annually from each of the high schools represented for the purpose of receiving scholarships to be presented by the associated banks.
6. The securing of complete co-operation between the association and approved educational organizations of the city center in the matter of receiving the recipients of the scholarships as students and the terms and conditions of their enrollment.

7. The formulation by the association of rules governing the conditions of the scholarship award and the salary, hours and details of the service required of the clerks.

8. The securing, maintenance and extension by the secretary, of both the city bankers' interest in the movement and that of the local high schools and their students.

9. The reception in the city center, by the secretary, of the new men on their arrival, their proper placement in good homes, in positions in the offices of the associated members and in the classes of the co-operating educational institutions; the secretary throughout the year acting as advisor and confidant of the boys and exercising a personal and sympathetic supervision over their progress.

10. The inception and carrying out of plans looking to the welfare of the clerks and students and the unification and improvement of their ideals in connection with their new vocation.

11. The establishment of a clearing-house of information and a medium by which deserving clerks may be brought in touch with more ambitious banking positions.

TEACHING OF SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS

The President's second industrial conference included in its program for regional boards to prevent the disruption of industry a pronouncement on modern social conditions that might very well be taken as a text for a sermon on a new demand in education. The complexity of social relations is such that we can no longer assume that even neighbors will understand each other. It is futile to talk about final adjustments of such relations until intelligence about them is deliberately cultivated in educational institutions. The statement of the industrial conference is as follows:

Our modern industrial organization, if it is not to become a failure, must yield to the individual a larger satisfaction with life. It makes possible a greater production of material things. But we have grown so accustomed to its complexity that we are in danger of forgetting that men are today more dependent on each other than ever before. The spirit of human fellowship and responsibility was easier to maintain when two or three worked side by side and saw the completed product pass from their hands. Yet their co-operation was actually less necessary because each by himself was more nearly capable, if circumstances demanded, to meet the needs of life. Today we have a complex interweaving of vital interests. But we have as yet failed to adjust our human relations to the facts of our economic interdependence. The process toward adjustment, though slow, nevertheless goes on. The right relationship between employer and employee in large industries can only be promoted by the deliberate organization of that relationship. Not only must the theory that labor is a commodity be abandoned, but the concept of leadership must be substituted for that of master-ship. New machinery of democratic representation may be erected to suit the conditions of present industry and restore a measure of personal contact and a

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sense of responsibility between employer and employee. The more recent development of such machinery with the co-operation of organized labor is a hopeful sign. But back of any machinery must be the power which moves it. Human fellowship in industry may be either an empty phrase or a living fact. [There is no magic formula. It can be a fact only if there is continuous and sincere effort for mutual understanding and an unflinching recognition that there is a community of interest between employer and employee.]

That the schools are not playing their part in cultivating the mutual understanding necessary to industrial prosperity could be proved by an analysis of the course of study. There is, however, another line of evidence to which the attention of the writer was drawn on the day before the appearance of the above quoted statement. The fact is that the public does not expect the schools to cultivate a sense of social responsibility. The following editorial may not be typical of universal opinion about the high school, but it comes very near being such. It will continue to be such until the high school and the elementary school also make instruction in social matters an explicit part of their programs. The editorial is from the *Chicago Daily News*.

IMMATURITY IN UNIVERSITIES

Too close association between the universities and the public schools may be deprecated with justification. To the common assertion that high-school curricula are dominated to a harmful degree by university entrance requirements may be added the equally fervent complaint that the university is suffering from the intrusion of high-school methods and purposes. In a greater dissociation, it may be asserted with reason, there are mutual advantages.

The course and credits system of American universities has much in it to defeat the educational morale of a responsible student. Adapted to the care-free immaturity of high-school age, its insertion into university life tends to perpetuate that irresponsibility to the disadvantage of those of a truly university caliber. It is no accident that ordinarily our youths of 20 and 22 equal in educational age and training those of not more than 18 in European universities.

Initiative in public matters is something that we have long ceased to expect from university students. A night shirt parade, a polyphonic college yell, fairly express the social limits of student responsibility. With materials at hand for that invaluable service which young and energetic idealism can give in public questions, most of our students remain, while in the university, in relative ignorance and apathy.

This immaturity may be due in large measure to the high-school point of view in our universities. Although the supporters of the credits system undertake to justify its enforcement by the obvious immaturity of the American student, it may well be a factor of that immaturity. Where grades and credits are the object of collegiate endeavor, where courses consist of required systems of

artificially outlined facts, there can be but little of that vigor and responsibility so essential to the contact of inner life with outer reality. American university students in general are given too little opportunity to be responsible.

A welcome exception to the general indifference of students in public affairs occurs now and then. For example, 250 women of the University of Idaho recently pledged themselves to a campaign for a special legislative session that Idaho might ratify the woman suffrage amendment to the federal constitution. With the express purpose of taking the work into their home towns during the holidays these university women have brought their ideals with unusual effectiveness into contact with the social and political matters of the state. They are working toward a definite objective of social importance.

The old ideal of the university in which the students are true scholars with a functional value in social opinion is not necessarily past. The present condition of the student does not show the unassailable immaturity of years but the immaturity of education and tendency which can be bettered.

NEW YORK SCHOOL PROBLEMS

The *School Review* has from time to time informed its readers of the educational turmoil in Chicago. On several occasions a statement not unlike that which now appears in the bulletin of the Public Education Association of New York City has seemed appropriate to those of us who observe at close range one of the two largest and probably worst disturbed school systems of the country.

If there is any truth in the old saying that misery loves company, New York may well feel consoled at the spectacle of educational mal-administration in Chicago. It is doubtful whether there has ever been a more complete demonstration of what machine politicians and spoilsmen can do with public education than that given by the second largest city in America.

Reversing the formula, it may be interesting to those who live west of the Alleghanies to have a clear statement of the situation in New York City. This is supplied in the bulletin of the Public Education Association of December 13, 1919, from which the following lengthy quotation is borrowed:

WHEN IS EDUCATION ACTUALLY A STATE FUNCTION?

The recent decision of the Court of Appeals establishing the right of the Commissioner of Accounts to examine the financial records of the school system has failed to clear up, to any appreciable extent, the real conflict between the school and city authorities regarding the management of the schools. Indeed it would seem that the decision has served, if anything, to increase the cause of the confusion.

The decision of the Court definitely provides that, inasmuch as the Board of Estimate and Apportionment is required by law to determine the amount of money to be annually appropriated for school purposes, it has the undisputed

right to make inquiries through the Commissioner of Accounts and in other ways to ascertain the facts upon which to base its action. So far, so good. No one will dispute the fairness of such a proposition. There certainly can be no objection on the part of any public spirited citizen to having all possible light thrown in the proper way upon the honesty and efficiency with which public funds are expended, whether they be for school purposes or for any other function of government. As a matter of fact, however, the Comptroller has always exercised that power, by virtue of the fact that all vouchers for public school expenditures must be countersigned by him before becoming valid. The decision of the Court of Appeals, therefore, simply confirms that practice and adds that the Commissioner of Accounts, as the agent of the Mayor, may also scrutinize the expenditures of the Department of Education.

If the right of inspection were all that is involved in the dispute between the city and school authorities, therefore, the matter could easily be dropped. It is a question, indeed, whether the dispute would have ever arisen. The real question which has bothered responsible school officials, as well as many thoughtful citizens, is whether it is legal or *wise*, if legal, for the Comptroller to use this power of inspection and audit as a means for actually *controlling* the expenditure of school funds and thereby, in effect, determining school policies from day to day.

The situation is briefly this: After the annual appropriation has been finally granted by the city authorities, it is next to impossible for the Board of Education, as unforeseen emergencies arise, to make any transfer of funds from one segregated item to another without the approval of the Comptroller. The Comptroller thus does not confine his action merely to seeing whether the funds are expended honestly, or inquiring why, for purposes of publicity, such changes are made, but actually assumes the right to veto the action of the Board of Education, even though such veto may reverse the policy of that Board. Innumerable instances might be cited where the work of the schools has been seriously handicapped and jeopardized by such arbitrary action by the Comptroller, in this and in other administrations, in passing negatively upon or unduly delaying action upon pressing matters officially determined by the Board of Education, the body which is designated in the statute as the policy making body for the schools.

Instead of pointing a way out of this unfortunate confusion of powers, the decision of the Court seems to obscure the situation further by the following statement:

"Public education is a state and not a municipal function. Boards of Education are branches of the State Government charged by the State with the administration of its educational system. Although public education is a state and not a municipal function some part of its administration may, by the State, be committed to a municipality and to a Board of Education as a department of such municipality, and its administration will thus rest upon a specified and prescribed division of authority and responsibility.

* * * *

"While the educational affairs in each city are under a general management and control of the board of education, such board is subject to municipal control in matters not strictly educational or pedagogic."

Just what this means, specifically, is a question. Where does the authority of the Board of Education as an agent of the State begin and end? Is the type of school seat, for example, an educational or a non-educational matter? Is the kind of school building in which children are to be taught to be determined from the point of view of educational policy primarily, or from the point of view of some other policy? And what about textbooks and the 57 or more other varieties of "educational" supplies? Are they to be determined on the basis of educational policy or not? Apart from the determination of the size of coal to be used in heating buildings and whether or not the cinders shall be sprayed with a solution of oxalic acid and rock salt for the purpose of economizing fuel, we can think of few questions connected with the process of education which should not be determined primarily from the point of view of educational policy rather than from any other.

Such vague statements of the Court without specification, therefore, tend to increase, rather than lessen, the strain of conflict at present playing havoc with our public school system.

Without specific definition, furthermore, such a general statement that there is a more or less vague division of responsibility between the municipality, on the one hand, and the Board of Education as the agent of the State, on the other, increases the difficulty of applying concretely the decision of the same Court to the effect "that the Commissioner of Education, as the chief executive officer of the State system of education, can determine school matters of policy and administration and in doing so is not subject to review by the courts." Under the circumstances, we should not like to be in the boots of the State Commissioner in passing upon what is and what is not within his jurisdiction. We should feel strangely in the position of playing hide and seek with the law, with the embarrassing danger ever present of being caught overstepping the limits of our power. Is that a proper or dignified position in which to place the chief educational officer of the great State of New York?

Fortunately, the Court indicates the way out of the dilemma in the concluding paragraph of the decision:

"If the State, through its legislature, intends to make the Board of Education of the City wholly independent of municipal action and prevent the City or the officers and Boards thereof from asserting any authority relating to matters connected with the public schools and the determination of the expenditure therefor, it should be stated by it in such clear language that its intention is 'unmistakable.'"

Everyone will admit that the perennial conflict between the school and city authorities of New York over who shall determine educational policies is detrimental to the welfare of the schools and should be cleared up promptly one way or the other.

The failure of the Court of Appeals in its recent decision to clear this matter up through judicial procedure serves but to emphasize the importance of so revising the law as to remove the doubt as to where specific powers and responsibilities lie.

Until that is done it would seem inevitable that the decision of the Court will tend to add to rather than detract from the present confusion, with its resultant effect upon the efficiency of the schools.

COST OF BOOKS

The Macmillan Company has compiled for the use of its agents a very illuminating diagram showing the increases in cost which enter into the making of books. The largest single increase for raw material is for paper which has risen 95 per cent since 1914. On the side of wages it is noted that men compositors have been increased 75 per cent; women compositors, 100 per cent; printers, 83 per cent; and binders, more than 75 per cent.

The statement might be made even more impressive by pointing out that not only have costs gone up but materials and labor are much more difficult to get than they were in 1914. Some of the minor items called for in making textbooks are so scarce or high-priced that they are almost out of the question. Thus, binders' board has gone up 150 per cent, and silesia, sateen, and duck have gone up 400 per cent.

Authors do not cost more than they used to. Royalties are about the most stable and least exacting part of the book business. This statement, it should perhaps be noted, is not quoted from the diagram to which reference is made above. The part of the diagram which is intended to be most impressive from the publisher's point of view is that in which the retail price of books is shown to have gone up only 28 to 45 per cent. The author and the publisher ought perhaps to join hands and compliment each other on the fact that the really substantial contributions to the book business are those least affected by the rising market of recent years.

THE FEDERAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Professor Burris of the University of Cincinnati has sent to the editors of the *School Review* a lengthy discussion of the bill now before Congress providing for a federal department of education. It is not possible to print this attack on the present bill in full because of our general rule that we will not knowingly reprint articles which appear in other educational journals. We are glad, however, to give space to a review of Professor Burris' proposal.

After pointing out that discussion of the present bill has been very limited and that the example of England, so far as it contributes light on the matter, does not encourage the creation of a federal secretary, Professor Burris calls attention to the fact that the experience of our own states and cities favors government by non-partisan boards of education which elect as their executive

officers superintendents with the qualifications of experts. This example Professor Burris would have followed by the federal government.

The *School Review* has on other grounds than those pointed out by Professor Burris indicated its conviction that the Smith-Towner bill cannot pass and ought not to pass.

The present writer does not believe that a federal board of education can be constituted which will be effective. The contentions of Professor Burris furnish, however, a favorable opportunity to call for a more exhaustive study of possibilities than was made by the commission which framed the first draft of the present bill. The present form of the bill is sufficiently different from the first draft to indicate that a broader study was needed than the original commission made. Since the bill was drafted great changes have taken place in the congressional situation. Is it not time to call into conference all the parties concerned in such legislation for the purpose of securing a law that will really work?

The Federal Board for Vocational Education, it is well known, served notice that it would oppose any bill that gave the department of education any share in its work. The Department of Agriculture was supposed to be opposed to the new department if it assumed to take a hand in the teaching of agriculture. Would it not be farsighted to call into conference these parties of opposition? Would it not be well to hear such plans as that proposed by Professor Burris discussed to a finish? Then we should have what we do not now have—a clear, definite statement of the proposed department and its relations to other divisions of the government. The present bill is weak and vague and so overburdened with the appropriation section that there is grave danger, if it could pass, that it would create not a department of education but an auditing agency to annoy the states in their enjoyment of a federal gift.

SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

The November bulletin of the National Education Association gives a statement regarding the present shortage of teachers and the probable shortage for next year which should have grave consideration by American communities. The statement is as follows:

More than 100,000 teaching positions in the public schools of the United States are either vacant or filled by teachers below standard, and the attendance at normal schools and teacher-training schools has decreased 20 per cent in the

last three years. These startling facts are shown by the complete report of an investigation made by the National Education Association.

Letters were sent out by the Association in September to every county and district superintendent in the United States asking for certain definite information. Signed statements were sent in by more than 1,700 superintendents, from every state, representing 238,573 teaching positions. These report an actual shortage of 14,685 teachers, or slightly more than 6 per cent of the teaching positions represented, and 23,006 teachers below standard who have been accepted to fill vacancies, or slightly less than 10 per cent. It is estimated that there are 650,000 teaching positions in the public schools of the United States, and if these figures hold good for the entire country there are 39,000 vacancies and 65,000 teachers below standard.

These same superintendents report that 52,798 teachers dropped out during the past year, a loss of over 22 per cent. On this basis the total number for the entire country would be 143,000. The reports show that the shortage of teachers and the number of teachers below standard are greatest in the rural districts where salaries are lowest and teaching conditions least attractive.

The states in which salaries and standards are highest have the most nearly adequate supply of teachers. California shows a combined shortage and below standard of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; Massachusetts shows $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, and Illinois 7 per cent. In at least six of the southern states more than one-third of their schools are reported either without teachers or being taught by teachers below their standards.

Nearly all of the superintendents declare that teachers' salaries have not increased in proportion to the increased cost of living, nor as salaries have in other vocations, and that teachers are continuing to leave the profession for other work.

Reports received by the National Education Association from normal school presidents show that the attendance in these teacher-training institutions has fallen off alarmingly. The total attendance in 78 normal schools and teacher-training schools located in 35 different states for the year 1916 was 33,051. In 1919 the attendance in these same schools had fallen to 26,134. The total number of graduates in these schools in 1916 was 10,295, and in 1919, 8,274. The total number in the graduating classes of 1920 in these 78 schools is 7,119. These figures show a decrease of over 30 per cent in four years in the finished product of these schools.

The presidents of these institutions state that in order to induce promising young men and women to enter the teaching profession and thereby furnish the country an adequate supply of competent, well-trained teachers, there must be:

1. Higher salaries for trained teachers;
2. Higher professional standards, excluding the incompetent and unprepared;
3. A more general recognition by the public of the importance of the teaching profession;
4. More liberal appropriations to state normal schools and teacher-training schools in order to pay better salaries in these institutions and furnish better equipment;
5. Extending the courses and raising the standards in the teacher-training schools.

EDUCATING A CITY ABOUT SCHOOLS

The Public Education Association of Buffalo publishes twice a month a journal which bears the title *School and Community* and is devoted to the mission of informing the people of that city about their schools. Besides the directors of the association which publishes the journal the board of editors includes the librarian of the public library, the superintendent of schools, the principal of the local state normal school, the resident member of the board of regents of the state department, a member of the board of education, and representatives of the Chamber of Commerce, National Congress of Mothers, National Association of Corporation Schools, and other organizations.

The following statement indicates the way in which the journal will go about its task:

School and Community proposes to keep the public informed as to the progress, activities, and plans of the School Department, and, in addition, to tell what the many civic organizations are doing to extend the usefulness of the schools or to increase the educational opportunities of the city.

School and Community is planned to meet the needs of men and women who want to follow big events in the school system, who desire truthful, authoritative statements regarding school affairs, who haven't time to hunt through the daily press and sift out what they want.

The journal is for those who think seriously of the problems involved in developing the child into an educated, well-informed, self-supporting citizen—problems involving the expenditure of millions of dollars yearly, the maintenance of a large system of school buildings, and the employment and supervision of 2,500 teachers who in turn must deal with 65,000 school children.

In order to keep its policy broad and sound, *School and Community* has a Consulting Board, made up of men and women representing the many activities and interests of the city, such as industry, commerce, labor, social welfare, civic interests. The members of this board, who are all well-known citizens of Buffalo, represent every section of the city.

The journal is not published for profit. Its aim is to help in uniting all civic forces in this great common interest—the education of our children.

Suggestions, editorial contributions, advertising support and subscriptions are desired to make this community adventure in school journalism a real force in our city.

Will you not send today your check for \$1.00 or more for membership in the Public Education Association, which includes subscription to *School and Community*?

The first issue of the journal opens with an article by one of the state educational officers and gives the people of Buffalo informa-

tion regarding the new law passed by the last legislature. A quotation from this article will serve the double purpose of giving an illustration of the way in which the new journal is to treat educational news and at the same time of supplying our readers with a brief statement about New York's law.

The part-time school law which was passed by the New York State Legislature of 1919 has been well called the "Children's Charter." This law guarantees to all children, resident of the state, an opportunity for education at public expense and under public supervision and control which will help to prepare them definitely for some occupation.

The law requires that all children between the ages of 14 and 18 who are not high-school graduates and who are not in attendance upon any full-time public, private, or parochial school shall attend part-time school for not less than four or more than eight hours each week during the regular school year and upon regular school days between the hours of 8 o'clock in the morning and 5 o'clock in the afternoon. Every community in the state with a population of 5,000 or more inhabitants must make provision for the instruction of a certain portion of the group required to attend commencing not later than September, 1920, and by September, 1925, must provide for the entire group.

The rules and regulations of the State Board of Regents and of the Commissioner of Education which govern the details of the organization and administration of part-time schools will be ready for distribution by February 1, 1920.

The part-time school is essentially a school for wage-earning boys and girls. Its purposes are limited to those which will function in the work-a-day world. In only a minor sense may it be considered a *continuation* school, for while it will continue the education of the children entrusted to its charge it will in no sense continue the formal general school work of the grades and the high school. Rather it will give such instruction as will help the child to choose intelligently some specific occupation, and then will do as much as possible to prepare him for that occupation.

NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

INTENSIVE COMMERCIAL COURSE FOR FRENCH GIRLS

High School of Commerce, Springfield, Massachusetts.—(1) Giving the girls courses in American history and American literature for the purpose of acquainting them with American life and ideals and the fundamental principles of our government. For a time kept them in separate classes until they had acquired more familiarity with the English language, then placed them in regular classes so that they might have the opportunity to participate in the discussion of questions with students of American birth. (2)

In English, emphasizing especially the spoken language, giving constant drill in exercises that will improve enunciation and pronunciation of the English language. (3) Running through the entire course of two years is the teaching and practice of book-keeping, accounting, and office methods. Purpose—to give greatest possible familiarity with the work in best business offices during their second year, after having taught fundamental principles, putting them out for part-time work in the best business offices of the city, where they have opportunity not only to observe but also actually to become part of the organization of the office. (4) Girls are all electing some work in Spanish, stenography, economics, commercial geography, and science. Affords each of these young women opportunity to develop a course that shall be somewhat individual. (5) Object of this training is to fit these young women, whose average age is 20 years, to return to France and accept positions as teachers of business methods, and also as private secretaries. Some of the more capable of them will be qualified to become office managers.

CARLOS B. ELLIS

SUPERVISED STUDY

High School, Allon, Illinois.—One teacher last semester conducted four classes in second semester algebra, one with supervised study, the other three without supervision. The supervised class was larger than any of the other divisions and contained a much larger percentage of weak pupils; nearly one-third of its members had been "conditioned" on the first semester's work, while all the members of the other divisions had carried the first semester's work without conditions. Supervised class showed work superior to that of the other divisions in recitations, in time tests, and in quarterly examinations, and at the end of the semester all the members of this class carried the work, while there were failures in all of the other divisions.

So encouraging were these results that this semester provision was made for supervised study in fourteen classes, four in Latin, three in French, and seven in algebra. Classes average thirty each and devote ninety minutes to each subject under direction of the teacher. Formal division of the period into "study" and "recitation." Teacher has an opportunity to meet the individual

needs of each pupil, to explain difficulties only to those who need help, and to adjust the work to the varying capacity of different individuals.

BERTHA FURGESON

GENERAL INTELLIGENCE TESTS

The University of Minnesota High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.—This high school has for three years given mental tests, designed to measure general intelligence, to all entering students. Students are assigned to sections on the basis of these examinations. This classification makes possible:

- a) the application of classroom technique suited to each section;
- b) a rate of progress consistent with the ability of each section;
- c) a better quality and a greater quantity of work in the abler sections;
- d) a reduction in the number of failures;
- e) a keener interest in each section—the slower students experience less discouragement and the faster students, because of keener competition, are less likely to contract habits of idleness and carelessness.

It has been observed that the correlation between the mental tests and achievement in the high-school subjects is highest in mathematics and science.

WILFORD S. MILLER

News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

CHICAGO DINNER

Occasion—Meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

Time—Tuesday, February 24, 1920, 6:30 P.M.

Place—Fourteenth floor of the Statler Hotel, Cleveland, Ohio.

Speakers—Dr. Charles H. Judd; Miss Alice Temple, chairman of the Kindergarten-Primary Department; L. W. Smith, president of the School of Education Alumni Association; William S. Gray, dean of the College of Education; Alumni members.

Tickets—Secure tickets before 10:00 A.M. Tuesday, February 24, on the mezzanine floor of the Statler Hotel. Price \$2.00.

COMMITTEE ON RESULTS IN THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

During the past school year the efforts of the Committee on Results have been in the direction of testing results obtained with pupils in the school, of devising plans for the analysis of subject-matter, and of giving assistance to various departments in reorganizing their courses. This type of work is to be continued during the present year. However, the committee will need to give less assistance since these projects are now being worked out departmentally. The committee will, therefore, be free to take up additional work.

Three types of activities have been planned for this year: a scientific study of the technique used by various teachers in the same department, in order to determine the best method of teaching certain phases of class work; a study of individual pupils who failed to profit sufficiently by instruction; and a study of the results obtained by the graduates of the school when in college. Not only will this study involve the grades they received in their courses, but a detailed analysis is being contemplated of any advantages or disadvantages our students may have as compared with graduates of other high schools.

In order to carry on this work the chairman will enlarge or reduce the committee as need arises. Members of the faculty will not be called upon to assist in work which is of a purely clerical type, but will co-operate when the nature of the investigation is such as to stimulate scientific study within the departments or the school. The chairman will work in close relation with the administration of the school, and the files and records of the office of the chairman of the committee will be available not only to the committee but also to the principal and any member of the faculty.

ART EDUCATION

Recent developments in the practical uses made of art in the commercial and industrial world, together with the application of scientific methods to the study of art instruction, are leading to significant changes in art courses in elementary and high schools. In this connection, the Department of Art Education in the College of Education is emphasizing the following lines of investigation in its courses this year.

1. A reconsideration of the values and objectives of art education in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges in the light of present educational, industrial, and social movements.

2. The application of scientific tests in elementary and high-school classes to aid in a detailed analysis of the characteristics of children's drawings, in a study of growth periods in the acquisition of drawing ability, and in a determination of the most important points for emphasis in the various grades.

3. From the point of view of art technique, laboratory work has been undertaken in the study of types of art expression as compared with the actual appearances of objects. These studies aim to discover among the impressions which the appearances of nature present what may be used as a vocabulary of art expression and what may be disregarded from the point of view of art. These studies are accompanied by practice in drawing, on the part of students, in order to improve their ability in pictorial expression.

It is significant that such studies as art are being subjected to the careful, unprejudiced scrutiny of experts who are making wide use of scientific methods in their efforts at reorganization. It is safe to predict that modified types of art instruction will result, which will be more significant in the education of American boys and girls than many of the courses in current use.

THE BEN BLEWETT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL OF ST. LOUIS—PART II

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ENGLISH

In Part I of this article was indicated the emphasis which the Ben Blewett Junior High School places upon social science as the core of the curriculum. To this end Blewett looks upon all work in the mother tongue as a means of gaining control for social purposes of two most important tools of everyday life, reading as a tool of thought-getting and expression as a tool of thought-giving. Organization of work, choice of content, reading paralleling civic and vocational life, elimination of unnecessary drills with A and B groups, intensive drill with C groups, all are intended to harmonize with the general principles of the school, differentiation of instruction, economy of time, direct planning for citizenship.

One unusual feature of the English schedule in Blewett is the apportionment of the total time of each term into definite units to be given to the two main divisions of the subject, literature and composition. Time is given to these in alternative periods of two weeks for each division. That is, two weeks are given to oral composition, two weeks to literature, two to written composition, and two to literature again—after which the order is repeated. The special values derived from this arrangement are: direction of teachers' and students' attention to a definite phase of the work in every time unit, with a resulting avoidance of confusion of aim and subject-matter; akin to the foregoing, the elimination of all drill and detail work except that which functions directly on the work in hand; and the comparative ease of supervision from the administrative viewpoint.

The content of the literature used is the result of an attempt to provide readings of known present interest to the students. Pupils are led to read books of high literary quality if possible, but emphasis is placed primarily upon content and teachers are urged to discontinue with any given class consideration of any book in which

there is found nothing of vital interest to the readers. The guiding principle is to find books in the school and public libraries that will appeal to the students and to provide as far as possible real social situations for their presentation in the classroom.

The course in general literature in the eighth grade is both introductory to, and parallel to, the courses in foreign languages. The foreign-language work opens only twice a year partly because classes would be too small if offered every quarter, and partly because the pupils normally go to the Senior High School after one year of elective is completed, and they can enter Soldan only once every half-year. Furthermore, only A type pupils may elect a foreign language in the eighth grade, because they must progress very rapidly.

Therefore, in November and April all pupils entering the eighth grade and electing academic work take the course in general literature for a quarter until they can enter a foreign-language course. In this sense the literature is introductory to the foreign language. But the B and C section pupils continue in the literature course until they enter the ninth grade when they may elect a foreign language, or they may continue in literature till they are ready to go to Soldan, receiving the same credit for this work as for the foreign language or any other elective. In this latter sense literature parallels the foreign language.

General literature draws in translation from French, Spanish, Italian, German, Dutch, Scandinavian, Danish, Portuguese, Latin, Greek, and any other languages from which stories or accounts of subjects of interest to children can be obtained. Mr. Cox, the principal, is himself giving one such course during the second quarter of the present year. The project on which his class is engaged is the lives of boys and girls in many lands. Another project in use is called "From Aesop to Seton Thompson," wherein the pupils seek out animal stories in translations from all languages.

The children are helped to discover and appreciate that human beings, in all lands and in all ages, have had many great experiences in common, their joys and sorrows, their homes, schools, games and sports, pets, friends, and foes.

In composition, an attempt is made to socialize the subject-matter by throwing lessons into project form wherein real life conditions or simulated life conditions are met, such as we find in

"occasional" speeches, sales talks, letters, conversations, descriptions such as people really use in life.

The general attitude of the school toward grammar indicates an incidental, informal, functional procedure, with brief excursions into formal grammar when necessary for clarifying or enforcing the incidental work in the subject. Good usage drills are held in high esteem in the incidental work. In fact all drills grow out of the work of the classes as revealed in their speech and writing. The application of standardized tests in composition, handwriting, spelling, argues very favorably for the retention of present methods with regard to the formal side of language work.

In both composition work and literature, the procedure of the classroom is socialized through organizing classes as clubs fully officered, and through providing for student participation in the various activities of the classroom. Also, classes are divided into groups for study and recitation purposes to stimulate effort through rivalry and through providing real audiences for all recitations.

GENERAL SCIENCE

The aim of this department is to build a sound foundation course for the seventh year which shall serve to give the pupils glimpses of the interesting fields which science explores. Interest in the world about them rather than amount of information being the vital consideration, pupils are brought into contact with many different phases of elementary science. Conspicuous here also is the primary feature in all seventh-grade work in Blewett Junior High, namely, the exploring of pupils' interests, aptitudes, and abilities. General science in this grade aims to open up to them the larger scientific fields that lie beyond, to the end that wise educational guidance and prevocational choices may be made in higher grades. Topics marked with a star, known as minimum essentials, are to be taken by all groups. A groups have additional topics at the teacher's discretion.

September:

1. Landscape appreciation.
2. Tree study; identifying the common trees; mapping school grounds.
3. Bird study; permanent residents near school; migrating birds.
4. General observation visit to the zoo.
5. The best food for children, milk.
6. Insect study: grasshopper and sphinx.

November:

1. Landscape appreciation; a November landscape.
2. Tree study; winter aspect of common trees.
3. Bird study; protective coloration; winter care of birds.
- *4. Visit to the zoo; planned carefully for study of one animal.
5. Bulbs; why planted in fall; why they bloom so early.
6. Animal study; gold fish and squirrel.

February:

1. Landscape appreciation; a winter landscape.
2. Tree study; report on trees in home block; survey trees of a district.
3. Bird study; watching return of early spring birds.
4. Visit to the bird cage in the zoo; planned lesson for observation.
5. Bag worm.
- *6. House fly; studied with microscope.
7. Tree products: lumber and lumber industry.

April:

1. Landscape appreciation; April landscape; identification of common plants.
2. Tree study; complete survey of district; structure; enemies; etc.
3. Bird study; bird homes; temporary residents.
4. School and home gardens; soil testing; seeding; germination; etc.
5. Animal study; earth worm; moths; butterflies; bumble bee; etc.
6. Food; when to eat fats, sweets, meats.
7. How to eat; digestive organs; teeth.

Topics for appropriate seasons; suggestive of phases developed:

1. The work rivers can do.
- *2. Springs; underground water; caves.
3. Volcanoes; geysers.
4. Influence of climate on food supply.
- *5. Balloons; weight of air; pressure; siphon; air pump; hydrogen gas.
6. Fire prevention; cause of fires; how controlled; oxygen and carbon dioxide.
7. The wind.
8. The dew; condensation; dew point; rain.
9. Granitoid wells; spaces; expansion of solids; liquids; gases; artificial ice; thermometer.
10. The compass.
11. Lightning rod.
12. Ice cream freezer and thermos bottle.
- *13. Properties of oxygen; carbon dioxide, hydrogen (review).
14. Mosquito; how it sings; travels; echoes.

General science in the eighth grade follows Van Buskirk and Smith's *Science of Every Day Life*; the subject-matter in coarse print is regarded as minimum essentials; A and B classes supplement very largely the work of the text. In the ninth grade there is one

general science course elective, paralleling electives in botany and physiology. The plan is to teach this elective course on the project basis, with reference books rather than with texts, pupils being encouraged to select problems in science most in keeping with their individual interests; for example, problems in physics for those mechanically inclined, or in physiology for children who think they may like to be nurses or physicians.

MATHEMATICS¹

In this department the basic text used for seventh and eighth grades is Wentworth and Smith's *Junior High School Mathematics*, a general mathematics book. The seventh-grade work is identical for all, covering in the first quarter arithmetic of the home and store, with geometry of form; second quarter, arithmetic of the farm, with geometry of position and percentage paving the way for algebra; third quarter, arithmetic of industry and the banks with graphs; fourth quarter, geometry of size and of areas and mensuration. In every quarter individual weaknesses in fundamental processes are disclosed by means of objective tests, and upon the findings drill is provided individually during supervised study periods.

For the eighth grade the academic (x) classes have a combination of algebra, trigonometry, and arithmetic; commercial (y) classes, bookkeeping and commercial arithmetic; industrial (z) classes for boys have shop mathematics and for girls budgets and accounts. General mathematics in the ninth grade is taught on the problem or project basis. A specialized shop course mathematics is given for the prevocational boys.

ART

The main spirit of the work in art is its service in the uses of daily life. It begins by the study of beautiful buildings in St. Louis, churches, schools, libraries, museums, and residences. Herein correlates also the appreciation element of the beauties of nature as outlined in the seventh-year general science. Topics covered include architecture, with study of the four fundamental types; painting, through strong examples of American art; city parks, the way in which landscape gardening supplements natural beauties; color schemes, with interior decoration and costume design. Actual art-work in the laboratories is freehand drawing

¹ The school is engaged in making radical changes in the course outlined here.

of large objects, poster work, athletic notices, designs for room doors, lettered mottoes—the walls and doors of Ben Blewett's building are covered with publicity-making illustrations of student work which calls for design, spacing, proportion, arrangement, lettering, and color, all done with care, accuracy, and neatness. To enable the future citizen to understand and to interpret the world about him, more perfectly to apprehend and use the productions of others, and in a measure to secure control of expression by visual means—these purposes are set as the goal.

MUSIC

Music in Blewett differs from that of the conventional school in many ways: (1) Artistic rendition is made a primary aim only for the voluntary glee clubs and orchestras. For the regular choruses the aim is enjoyment, appreciation, and expression. Much popular and light opera music is sung, with much listening and discussion. (2) There are some efforts to separate the musical pupils from the unmusical; more experimentation along this line is contemplated. (3) Music content parallels to a certain extent the social-study courses. For example, while the children are studying Greek history, they are given a taste of Greek music. Other folk music is treated in the same way. Similarly, in the eighth grade the periods of American history are correlated with periods of American music. (4) In the ninth grade more attention is given to art music and to art form. Stories of famous operas and oratorios are reported; excerpts are sung; other parts are filled in by musical records. In general, Blewett children learn music through hearing it and singing it rather than through hearing about it.

PRACTICAL ARTS

Practical arts is the name applied generally to all the activities in the school which have grown out of the manual-training nucleus. The term "manual training" apparently is used only to establish the relationship of the practical arts electives in the Junior High School with the manual training curriculum of the Senior High School.

Practical arts for boys includes in the seventh grade try-out experiences in printing, painting, electricity, pipe-fitting, woodwork, both benchwork and lathe-work, plumbing, forging, elemen-

tary molding and casting. Work of this year includes many boy-scout projects, many individual projects—aeroplanes, sailboats, water-motors, heliographs, photographic apparatus—and many repair jobs, faucets, screen-doors, replacing broken glass, sign-painting. All of this work goes on simultaneously under the direction of one instructor. The boys work at benches, lathes, forges, and the like, placed around the outside of the room, except the woodwork benches, which are in the center. There is a raised platform with seats in tiers, in front of which is a demonstration bench where the instructor or a group of boys may show the other boys just how a project is to be developed and completed.

Boys who continue with practical arts in the eighth grade, elect either cabinet-making and wood-turning, printing, or electrical work; or if age and size warrant it, metal-work, including molding, forging, machine-work, and auto-repairing. With whatever 'practical arts they take they are given also one double period of mechanical drawing, applied as directly as possible to the particular line of practical arts work they are pursuing. For those who are going directly on into the Senior High School the ninth-grade work is like the eighth except that ten periods a week are devoted to it instead of seven.

For older boys who are interested in the practical work, the school offers specific prevocational experiences in auto-mechanics, printing, electricity, and machine-shop practice, the pupil spending one-half of his time in shop-practice and the rest in correlated and academic work.

The home economics experiences of the seventh grade include garment-making and alteration and group projects in cooking and sewing. Pupils who elect home economics in the eighth grade do a considerable amount of social project work for the Red Cross, school entertainments, garments for baby brothers and sisters, repairs and alterations for mothers and big sisters, and the preparation of sheets and pillow-cases for the city hospital. On Fridays and on special occasions they serve luncheon for groups of teachers or guests. In preparing such a luncheon menus are worked out by groups of girls to keep the total cost per plate down to fifteen cents. One of these menus is selected by the class, and each of four groups accepts responsibility for a course. The chairman of one group is the chief-hostess. Chairmen of the other groups are responsible

for the various fish, cakes, salad, coffee, hot rolls, or dessert. Each chairman sees to it that the materials are at hand and that her assistants have definite tasks assigned.

CLASS METHODS—THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

The socialized recitation as found in Blewett has several aims, chief among which are (1) to do away with passivity and arouse interest; (2) to enable the pupil to correct wrong impressions; (3) to enable him to form the habit of concentrated effort and attention; (4) to enable him to enlarge his experience in an orderly, logical fashion; (5) to enable him to express his own individuality and to receive the modifying influence from the class in return; (6) to give him an opportunity to do and to be rather than to know, by thinking, reasoning, and making decisions.

With such aims in view each class is presented as a group of good-spirited co-operators and critics working with real projects—such projects arising in the mind of the group or individual thereof, or being stimulated by the teacher. According to the ability of the class concerned or the size and value of the project in question, the work is distributed among the various members of the groups, the pupils always choosing the committee upon which they prefer to serve, the committee in turn choosing its own chairman.

Preparation of the work for class presentation is then begun—organization of the particular phase of the work in hand being the chief interest of the individual groups. In an A class such organization is left largely to the children, the result of which is submitted to the teacher for approval or guidance. In a C class, organization of the material in question is secured from the class, the teacher guiding the discussion while the class chairman places on the board the decisions reached by the group. Organization being completed, the various members of the group choose the point or two appealing to them. The groups are now ready for research work. The entire preparation of the work is done in what is called the supervised study period, the teacher guiding, counseling, and supplementing wherever possible.

Presentation of the work to the class by the group concerned is the next step. With the class-chairman in charge, chairmen of the various committees are presented in turn, they calling upon the various members of their groups for support. In such a situation

we have what may be likened to a round-table discussion, the recitation taking on the form of conversation and discussion, constructive rather than destructive criticism being encouraged. The class invariably insists that the group reciting make plain the question in hand. The class, however, frequently comes to the assistance of the group reciting if assistance is needed. If such help fails—such situations frequently arise in slow classes—the teacher steers the recitation. Oftentimes a little more supervised study on the part of the group presenting the work clears up the situation. Throughout the entire situation the teacher is primarily a guide, supplementing, advising wherever possible without dominating the recitation. Questions are asked of the class on the work presented them by the group or class chairman, and notebook work is required as home work.

From such a situation a real, life-like laboratory is the result, the members of which are members of a working community. Maximum opportunity is afforded to develop self-reliance, initiative, co-operation, leadership, and group friendliness. The greatest advantage, however, from the pupils' standpoint, is the opportunity to learn how to study, how to think, and how to express results.

HOME WORK AND SUPERVISED STUDY

Assignments calling for home work are made but once a week in each subject, first-hour classes using Monday, second-hour, Tuesday, and so forward, thus enabling pupils to distribute their evening work throughout the week. In general, home assignments are used to test a pupil's acquaintance with the classwork of the preceding week, or in the upper classes for the additional reading in books not available during school hours, or for personal investigation bearing upon a group project. In history, home work may take the form of a letter, written by the pupil to a friend as of the date being studied, concerning passing events. In civics, a home-study assignment may call for an investigation of conditions in the pupil's immediate neighborhood that illustrate the topic being studied. For example, a common assignment while the topic "relations between government and business" is in hand is a personal visit to some business firm; the pupil is required to interview his local druggist or grocer for information concerning government supervision, regulation, and co-operation.

Home work may be thus limited in amount for two reasons: first, the class hours are study and work periods of shop and laboratory rather than recitation room. Teachers in Blewett are decidedly not lesson hearers. Secondly, provision is made for daily preparation in supervised study which occupies from one-third to two-thirds of each class hour. A hobby of the school, the socialized recitation described above, places a premium upon project-teaching, plans and materials worked out through committees and results presented as a group product. Actual supervised study for an individual consists in helping him to read with a purpose, to get the content of the written page, and to make use of data selected for a definite end.

ORGANIZED PLAY AND ATHLETICS

Blewett endeavors to stress intra-school athletics and organized play; attempt is made to draw every boy and girl into the games of gymnasium and playground. A wholesome spirit of competition is fostered between individuals and classes, and with the individual's own achievements. During the past autumn there have been series of interclass games in playground baseball, in soccer, in track and field athletics. Monday afternoons find six interclass games of seventh-grade advisory groups, Wednesdays, eighth-grade teams, Fridays, ninth-grade. Grade winners play each other for the school championship. Each Tuesday are held track and field contests, two or three events only each week, with separate heats and finals for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, culminating in finals for school championships. The Tuesday series, growing more strenuous from week to week, culminates in a cross country run, or a hare and hound race. Careful records in all events are kept, and through a scoring system, boys who consistently show a fair degree of ability may win the school letter. The soccer series of competition for school championship beginning with outer advisory group games is inaugurated as soon as playground baseball is finished. Similar series of outdoor competition in games suitable for girls are also held; baseball, dodge-ball, basket-ball, and volley-ball are popular.

Among the various clubs which meet every Tuesday afternoon are the following: Girls' Outdoor Sports Club, Boys' Basket-Ball Club, Girls' Basket-Ball Club, Hiking Club, and Boys' Football Club whose names signify their purposes. Of their weekly clubs,

whose purpose is distinctly athletic, about 300 boys and girls are members; about 500 boys take part in playground baseball each week; and 250 boys have competed in the field events of a single Tuesday. Thirty boys form the regular Rugby Football Squad, which plays with teams from other schools.

CLUBS

Six athletic clubs in which membership is voluntary were mentioned above. The aim of the school to have all pupils enrolled in one extra curricular activity has led to the formation of twenty-eight other clubs, all of which meet at the final class period each Tuesday, which becomes for this purpose a seven-period day. Each of the six regular recitation periods of the day are shortened sufficiently to provide a full hour for club work. Membership in one of these clubs is required with this interesting alternative: a pupil may elect to spend the period in a study-room at work upon his lessons. About fifty pupils choose the alternative. Each club has a teacher as sponsor who keeps a guiding hand upon all its activities. Records of attendance are kept, and regular attendance as in all classes is required.

The work of all the various clubs correlates directly or indirectly with subjects of study in the regular curriculum. Some of the directors have pointed out the fact that the work of certain organizations is intimately connected with more than one subject. The following grouping of clubs shows their most direct correlation:

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. English: | 4. Commercial: |
| Blewett Literary Society | Typists' Club |
| Dramatic Club | Young Business Men's Club |
| Expression Club | 5. Science: |
| Library Club | Agriculture Club |
| Reporters' Club | Garden Club |
| Story Writers' Club | Junior Experimenters |
| Social Hour Club | Nature Club |
| 2. Languages: | Bird Club |
| French Club | Star Study Club |
| Latin Club | 6. Practical Arts: |
| Spanish Club | Art Club |
| 3. Social Studies: | Cooking Club |
| Know Missouri Club | Gas Engine Club |
| Know St. Louis Club | Girls' Manual Training Club |
| Stamp Club | Boys' Manual Training Club |
| Travelers' Club | Mechanical Drawing Club |

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| Needle Craft Club | 8. Physical Training: |
| Printers' Club | Girls' Basketball Club |
| 7. Music: | Boys' Basketball Club |
| Fife, Drum, and Bugle Corps | Hiking Club |
| Girls' Glee Club | Outdoor Sports Club |
| Orchestra | |

Not only is the students' part in the club wholly voluntary but also the teacher's. Without exception sponsors have volunteered their services for a club doing work in which they are personally interested. In many cases they have helped plan and organize the association, and are as much interested in its growth as any of the student members. Sometimes two teachers are associated in the work of one club. This is usually the case in organizations that have a large membership. Perhaps the chief factor in securing cooperation of teacher and pupil is the perfect freedom given to both in selecting the particular club in which they wish to work. The result is a spontaneous enthusiasm that secures genuine progress. Chief among the important by-products of the club work is the development of a fine school morale, everywhere evident. Scarcely less valuable also is the development of initiative and leadership. These benefits are due to the fact that the pupils choose their own officers, make their own rules, arrange their own programs, and speak and act freely for the society.

THE BLEWETT "B"

In common with the practice of most high schools, the school letter, the Blewett "B," in the past has been granted only to boys who have excelled in athletics. But this year, with the approval of the faculty, the School Cabinet adopted a new plan, more in keeping with the democracy of the school. The Blewett "B" is now granted to both boys and girls for marked success in (1) citizenship; (2) scholarship; and (3) extra class activities of many sorts, including athletics. One limitation is imposed: no pupil may earn his "B" in any division if his record is unsatisfactory in the other divisions.

A second interesting innovation provides that the school letter must be earned by progressive achievement. The first time the letter is awarded a pupil receives a bronze button; the second time, a silver button; and the third time, a felt letter to be worn on a sweater.

To be noted in this connection is that all pupils are given regular grades in citizenship to be taken home quarterly with their other marks. Pupils who receive 85 per cent excellent are candidates in citizenship for the "B." A committee of the Blewett "B" Council then investigates each candidate by consulting their pupil advisers, teachers, and other group officers, checking each candidate for the following characteristics:

Citizenship:

1. Personal questions.
 - a) Is he clean in person?
 - b) Is he orderly?
 - c) Is he neat in dress?
 - d) Does he take care of his teeth?
2. Moral qualifications.
 - a) Is he courteous?
 - b) Is he honest?
 - c) Is he industrious?
 - d) Does he choose good citizens for friends?
 - e) Does he practice clean speech?
 - f) Does he practice fair play?
3. Positive contributions to the school.
 - a) Is he a good class officer?
 - b) Is he a good leader for a ball team, music class, group work, etc?
 - c) Is he a good corridor officer?
 - d) Does he take an active part in boosting his group and his school in campaigns of various kinds?

Similarly, scholarship records are checked by a Scholarship "B" Committee, and athletic records by an Extra-Class "B" Committee.

The right to wear the emblem may be revoked by the council for unsatisfactory conduct or record. On the contrary a ninth-grade pupil may earn the right to wear all three letters "B," the plain letter for scholarship, old English for citizenship, and black for extra class activities. The bronze button may be worn by a pupil in the second half of the seventh grade; the silver button in the eighth, and the felt letter in the ninth as early as it is earned.

In considering this elaborate plan for the school emblem, it must be remembered that the major purpose of the school is to develop the knowledge, ideals, and habits of good citizenship. Paralleling all the work of all the departments of the school, there is a series of social problems, planned by a special faculty committee,

and enlisting the participation of the entire student body. This year the general topic of the social campaigns is "Conservation," and the slogan "Save to Serve." The various campaigns are: Thrift, Safety-First, Thanksgiving, Blewett Election, School Property, Spring and Arbor Day, Health, and a Saving of Time and Energy Campaign.

COST

The cost per pupil for instruction in the Ben Blewett Junior High School during the year 1917-18 was about \$75 as against \$40 for the elementary schools and \$105 for the four-year high schools. However, the comparative cost per pupil per year does not take into account several factors. The seventh- and eighth-grade costs in the regular elementary schools are higher than in the lower grades, so that the cost per pupil would probably be nearer \$50 than \$40. On the other hand, high-school Freshmen cost less per pupil year than the third- and fourth-year students; so that the cost of the ninth grades in the regular high schools is probably nearer \$90 than \$105. Assuming these estimates to be nearly correct, the junior high-school pupils of the seventh and eighth grades, approximately two-thirds of total enrolment, should be checked up against the \$50 cost of the elementary schools, and the ninth grade, one-third, against the high-school cost of \$90; thus: $\frac{2}{3} \times 50 + \frac{1}{3} \times 90 = \63.33 per pupil in comparison to \$75 actual cost.

However, the pupils in Junior High School make more rapid progress than in elementary school or high school. The cost per grade progress in 1917-18 was only \$57 in all three grades, making the saving on 1,400 children, the average membership of the school, a saving of more than \$8,000 annually to the community.

And yet the total money cost is not apparently less because the Junior High School retains its pupils, and as long as they remain, the school does not save the money ordinarily saved by eliminating one-third to two-thirds of the pupils. The elimination owing to pupils going to work, or remaining at home, was less than 3 per cent during the year 1917-18. Indeed, the school is promoting to the tenth grade of the Senior High School more pupils from its half of the old Soldan High School district than used to enter the tenth grade from the whole district, about 550 children a year.

CONCLUSION

It is apparent, then, that Blewett is working out for herself the life of a true intermediate school, endeavoring to adapt organization, curricula, methods, and all school experiences to the needs of adolescents. The ideal constantly held before the children is that *they are always to be good citizens of Ben Blewett Junior High School*. Through a controlled environment, in the ordering of which the boys and girls themselves play conspicuous parts, the pupils are growing up into socially valuable adults. In their school life, itself a miniature democracy, they live as they will live in the democracy of adult life. And in the accomplishing of this purpose, Blewett presents radical modifications in subject-matter and methods of instruction, presents experiments in pre-educational choices and prevocational guidance, and presents readjustments of a more distinctly social nature through an elaborately organized system of extra-curricular activities. Above all, one feature predominates. Blewett is not interested primarily in teaching subjects; she is interested in teaching children of varying interests and capacities. She is shaping all her school activities in accord with the most vital of all the principles which have called junior high schools into existence: Education must concern itself primarily with the differing and the changing stages of mental and physical maturity of children.

A STUDY OF APPLIED MUSIC

FRANK ARTHUR SCOTT

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For a number of years the musical educators of the United States have been advocating the acceptance of the private study of piano and other instruments for public-school credit. That there is a substantial body of students who desire to pursue such a study has been for some time a well-known fact. The purpose of the present paper is to set forth the conditions, relative to home music study, in a typical New England town, suburban to Boston, and of a residential character. It is unlikely that the facts here collected will differ greatly from those collected in other communities. Such investigations as have been made have shown a very wide-spread study of the piano, violin, and other musical instruments during the early and late adolescent period.

The present inquiry was made in June, 1918 and 1919, in the senior and junior high schools of the town of Belmont, Massachusetts, a town with a population of 10,000, situated seven miles from Boston. A number of facts were sought, namely, what proportion of the pupils had at some time studied music privately, how many had discontinued, the reasons for such discontinuance, how many would continue if school credits were given for the work, how many and what kind of instruments were found in the homes, and what scholarship grades were secured by the students of music.

It was hoped that such an investigation would throw considerable light upon the general musical situation among school pupils and show the desirability of giving recognition, under proper restriction, to the outside study of piano, voice, violin and other orchestral instruments. The public school is not now equipped, and perhaps never will be, to give such individual instruction under its direct supervision during school hours.

A set of questions was presented simultaneously to both the schools mentioned and two sets of figures were obtained for two different years, 1918 and 1919. The great similarity in results makes it possible for us to deal for the most part, with one set, that

for the latest date, June, 1919. One comment might, however, be made in regard to that for June, 1918. While the number of students studying music was approximately the same for the two years, there was a marked increase in the number of musical instruments in the homes. The report for June, 1919, showed over a hundred more instruments in the homes than was the case in June, 1918. A consideration of trade conditions showed that there had been great activity in the sale of pianos and talking machines during that year.

The first table is very largely self-explanatory. It shows that 57.48 per cent of the senior high-school pupils and 48.16 per cent of the junior high-school pupils had at some time studied music at home.

TABLE I
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THOSE STUDYING MUSIC AT SOME
TIME IN THEIR SCHOOL CAREER, JUNE, 1919

	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL		JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Enrolment.....	266	100.00	247	100.00
Studying.....				
Piano.....	131	49.20	107	43.30
Violin.....	8	3.02	7	2.83
Fife.....	3	1.13	1	0.41
Voice.....	5	1.88	3	1.21
Trombone.....			1	0.41
Flute.....	2	0.75		
Bugle.....	2	0.75		
Drum.....	2	0.75		
Totals.....	153	57.48	119	48.16

Figures for other years and other communities might show a larger variety of instruments used in the lessons. The presence of a good teacher or performer in town is a great stimulus to latent talent.

The next table deals with the distribution of reasons given for dropping the study. Occasionally more than one reason was given. In estimating the percentage of those who dropped the work, therefore, a reduction is made at the end of the table for the purpose of correction. It is probably a coincidence that the number dropping lessons because of school work was 54 in the senior high school in both years, and likewise in the junior high school the number was

2 in both years. There was considerable fluctuation in the other reasons given as shown by the two years' study. Very few gave lack of funds as the reason.

TABLE II
REASONS WHY PUPILS DROPPED MUSIC STUDY

	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL		JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Total studying.....	153	100.00	107	100.00
School studies.....	54	35.30	2	1.87
Dislike.....	14	9.15	6	5.10
Afternoon work.....	4	2.62	1	0.93
Proficient enough.....	2	1.31		
Lack of funds.....	3	1.96		
Moving.....	9	5.88	3	2.78
Loss of teacher.....	1	0.65	1	0.93
Ill health.....	4	2.62	4	3.74
Other reasons.....	2	1.31	4	3.74
Totals.....	93		21	
Less duplications....	11		1	
Net.....	82	60.80	20	19.09

An inspection of the table shows that the regular high-school work made it necessary in a large number of cases to discontinue the study of music privately. Very often preparation for college was an added factor. That a substantial number of those who had to drop the subject would continue if school credit were given therefor was shown by the fact that 21 in the senior high school and 9 in the junior high school expressed a desire to take the work under those conditions. This, in the senior high school, is slightly over 25 per cent of those who discontinued.

A further analysis of the returns will show the effect of the increasing severity of the school work as it is reflected in the larger percentages of the upper classes who have had to give up this outside work. The amount of time given to lessons and practice though showing a wide range, from one-half an hour per week to fifteen hours a week (three hours a day), brought remarkably close averages whether computed by classes or for the total number studying. These averages for the senior high-school pupils were for 1918, 5.68 hours per week, and for 1919, 5.79 hours per week. This compares

very closely with the time that should be spent on regular school subjects.

In Table III are given the enrolment of the classes, the percentage of the class that has studied music privately, and the percentage of those who, having begun the study, dropped it previous to the time of this investigation.

TABLE III
EFFECT OF SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL WORK UPON THE CONTINU-
ANCE OF PRIVATE MUSIC STUDY, JUNE, 1918, 1919

Year	Total in Class	Percentage Studied	Percentage Discontinued
1918			
Senior.....	44	45.5	80.0
Junior.....	50	52.0	71.1
Sophomore.....	53	45.3	50.0
Freshman.....	83	59.1	55.0
School.....	230	51.8	61.3
1919			
Senior.....	47	55.2	81.8
Junior.....	46	34.8	37.5
Sophomore.....	78	64.0	54.0
Freshman.....	95	64.2	45.9
School.....	266	57.5	60.8

It is evident from these figures, which would be doubtless more consistent if larger numbers had been available, that, on the average, the older classes in school find it more difficult to keep up their home work in music with their other school studies. As seen in Table II, this condition of affairs does not affect the junior high-school student; he still has time to spare for the subject, and the natural laws of like and dislike of the subject or teacher, play the most important part in dropping the subject during those years.

In order to determine whether the pupils of the senior high school who studied music in addition to their other school work were of the better or poorer class of scholars, a study of their ranks was undertaken. The results are collected in Table IV and show that this group of students is equal to the average in most cases, and above the average in others.

TABLE IV
SCHOLARSHIP AVERAGES OF MUSIC STUDENTS IN THE SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOL, BASED ON 100 AS A PERFECT MARK

	1918	1919
All students of music.....	80.83	82.16
Those who dropped on account of school studies.....	81.65	82.09
Those who dropped on account of other reasons.....	78.97	78.22
Those who continued music in the high school.....	79.26	82.62
Scholarship average of the school.	80.56	79.10

It is very apparent that the serious-minded music student was (with the possible exception of one group) above the average in industry and accomplishment. The pupil who wishes to pursue this subject seriously is therefore entitled to the consideration of the school authorities.

The question of the relative interest of boys and girls in the study of music was noted and set forth in tabular form in Table V.

TABLE V
MORTALITY OF THE MUSIC STUDENT ACCORDING TO SEX

	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL				JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL			
	1918		1919		June, 1919		September, 1919	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total taking lessons....	32	87	39	114	35	85	38	82
Continued.....	16	34	21	50	28	72	27	58
Percentage continued ..	50	39.2	53.9	43.8	80	84.75	71	70.9

As a rule the boys stuck to their music lessons better than did the girls, though a relatively larger number of girls studied the subject.

The pupils were also asked concerning the musical instruments owned at home in order to determine the influence that music might have in their daily life. The returns were somewhat surprising. While only the results for the year 1919 are appended, it is interesting to note that there was apparently a wide-spread purchasing of instruments during the year 1918-19. As has been already stated there was a difference of 100 instruments in the homes of the senior high-school pupils as shown by the two reports. The difference in enrolment for the two years would not account for so large an

increase in numbers. There were nineteen different kinds of instruments reported and many homes contained more than one instrument; the highest number being thirteen. The proportion of homes having one or more instruments was nearly 90 per cent. Such a wide-spread distribution shows that here is a large field of education almost untouched by the public schools. Instruction in many of these instruments could very readily be undertaken by classroom instruction as has already been done in some communities. The opportunity for a large orchestra, if properly stimulated, is apparent. The investment has already been made and the actual

TABLE VI
INSTRUMENTS FOUND IN THE HOMES OF THE PUPILS, JUNE, 1919

	Senior High School	Junior High School
School enrolment.....	266	247
Piano.....	176	181
Phonograph.....	82	116
Violin.....	37	39
Drum.....	8	7
Flute.....	8	2
Banjo.....	8	7
Organ.....	7	2
Ukelele.....	6	6
Mandolin.....	5	16
Bugle.....	5	4
Cornet.....	3	10
Autoharp.....	1
Harp.....	1
Accordion.....	1
Guitar.....	3	5
Clarinet.....	1
Piccolo.....	1	3
Fife.....	1	3
Trombone.....	3
Total.....	352	406

cost to the public school system would not be large. The prevalence of music in the homes of the people points clearly to the desirability of greater recognition. There is no subject that might be taught in the schools that would have so wide an influence and value for the hours of leisure and relaxation that are apparently coming in larger measure to the worker of the future and to the public generally.

Table VI shows an average of 1.3 for the senior and 1.6 instruments for the junior high school; 66.1 per cent of the homes of the senior high-school pupils and 73.2 per cent of the homes of the

junior high-school pupils contained pianos. The large number of orchestral instruments is also worthy of note.

In Table VII we classify the homes according to the number of instruments in each. This will prove surprising to one with no preconceived notions about the subject.

TABLE VII
DISTRIBUTION OF INSTRUMENTS IN THE HOMES, JUNE, 1919

Number	Senior High School	Junior High School
One.....	75	82
Two.....	80	75
Three.....	26	42
Four.....	10	14
Five.....	2	2
Six.....	2
Thirteen.....	1
Total.....	196	215
Percentage of school.	89	87

THE PRESENT SITUATION IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL MUSICAL INSTRUCTION

We are obliged to confess that, with the exception of a very few communities in the United States, music instruction in the public schools of the country is very inadequate. It does not in any sense measure up to the great importance of the subject.

About 30 per cent of the schools have choral work, either compulsory or elective. Only a few give opportunity for more advanced choral or solo work to the musically gifted pupils. Many schools of an enrolment of two hundred or over have orchestras and in some cases give credit for the work therein. They have in very few cases used these orchestras in such a way as to arouse the latent talent of the school to its utmost. The study of harmony and musical appreciation has made some headway. A census of the metropolitan district of Boston showed on November, 1919, that 21.7 per cent (or 7 out of 32) of the cities and towns were giving courses in this subject.

The private study of music, which is the main theme of this paper, has also received recognition in the towns and cities mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Among other large cities and towns of the country that have adopted the full musical program we are considering are San Francisco, Oakland, and Berkeley, Califor-

nia, Cincinnati, Ohio, Duluth, Minnesota, Indianapolis, Indiana, St. Louis, Missouri, Schenectady, New York, Yonkers, New York, New Britain, Connecticut, Nashua, New Hampshire, Rutland, Vermont.

So far as we can ascertain, the vast majority of the communities of the land give little or no consideration to the possibility of utilizing the latent musical forces of the home and community and hence neglect a most important field of education.

THE PROGRAM PROPOSED

To those already familiar with the report on the subject of music of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association and printed by the United States Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 49, 1917, the following outline will not be new.

The investigation into the condition of home music in the high schools of Belmont was undertaken without reference to this report. While it is local in its scope, it points to a state of affairs of which most principals are well aware. One of the former principals of a high school suburban to Boston, a man well known throughout the country, once said that the musically gifted pupil who wishes to pursue music as a serious study never completes the high-school course because music has no adequate place in the public high school. He must leave if he wishes to put the time and effort into his chosen subject that are required for proficiency and success and thus lose the advantage of general high-school training.

The program suggested in the report referred to above includes (1) chorus singing, properly graded and classified; (2) orchestral work; (3) glee clubs; (4) appreciation of music; (5) theory of music; (6) applied music, or school credit for outside work.

Space does not permit a full consideration of these subdivisions of the work in music. The reader is referred to the report mentioned for a full presentation of the methods to be used. Our purpose is to call attention again to the subject and to present reasons for its adoption.

THE EDUCATIVE VALUE OF MUSIC

The prime motives in musical education are appreciation of good music and the development of the power of musical expression. In these respects it is similar to the training in English. That a

finer appreciation of music is greatly needed scarcely demands proof. Never have we seen a time when music has been commercialized to such an extent as at present; as a result, never have we seen a time when musical taste has been depraved on such a vast scale as at present. The "jazz" and the rag-time are the "dime-novels" of music. We frown on cheap literature and tolerate cheap music. Professor Inglis, in his book on *Principles of Secondary Education*, well says:

the skeptic concerning the important part played by the aesthetic arts in modern life may well consider the erotic and dithyrambic music and song which attracts the secondary pupil and others, the character of modern dancing . . . , the character of the popular "musical comedy."

The home, even the church, do not cast their influence for the best in music. Indifference towards the whole situation marks our attitude. The schools have demonstrated that in many fields their influence counts; many reforms of the past can be traced to the proper utilization of its organized forces; many proposed reforms for the future are planned and already adopted as part of the program of education. We can greatly modify the musical tone of the community if we are determined to do so.

If training for a vocation has a place in the public school, the music student may often claim a right to a hearing. The pursuit of music for monetary ends many times is the result of activity in some school or college musical club. Most of the church music of today and a large part of entertainment and concert work is carried on by people who do not make a livelihood thereby, but who seek in this avocation pleasure and incidental profit. A large part of the revenue of the best music teachers, vocal and instrumental, is consequently drawn from this source. Most of our local bands, local orchestras, and male quartets are made up of semi-professionals who were stimulated to undertake their work by an early beginning in school.

Many more, thousands more, never seek to use their musical training in public performances, but do secure a fund of recreation and pleasure for themselves and their immediate families in the home circle. The influence of music in holding the young to the home during the period of adolescence, its place in giving vent to wholesome emotion during that time, can perhaps not be accurately determined or stated, but we all know it to be considerable.

If one of the objects of training be the securing of accuracy of thought and action, the proper regulation of music teaching and the setting up of high standards is important. The acceptance of private study by the schools would secure a standardization of private music instruction which no other agency could accomplish. At present it is easy for one to advertise as a teacher of music. No questions are asked concerning the experience or training of such instructors. The public has little opportunity to study or investigate their qualifications. The public school, even without certifying the worthy teachers, would greatly strengthen them by its requirements and would in time make it impossible or unprofitable for a poorly trained or inefficient teacher to do business.

That the study of music, whether in the form of private instrumental or vocal lessons or in the form of harmony and other branches of theory, is a subject of worthy endeavor is evinced by the attitude of the colleges. In the report on College Entrance Requirements, compiled by Clarence D. Kingsley, and published by the United States Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 7, 1913, we find that 84 colleges and engineering schools in the country give admission credit for music, theoretical or applied, i.e., private musical study. The New England colleges on this list are Boston University, Clark College, Mount Holyoke College, Smith College, Tufts College, Wellesley College. Outside of New England some of the well-known institutions on the list are Columbia, University of California, Leland Stanford University, Colgate, and most state universities. Harvard and Radcliffe have for many years given credit for advanced standing to pupils who have been able to pass tests in harmony and counterpoint. Harmony and counterpoint are accepted by the College Entrance Examination Board and until recently examinations were given in voice, piano, and violin. The reason the latter tests were taken off the list is doubtless that there have been almost no candidates that offered themselves. This does not mean that the subject is unworthy. The high schools have not given their pupils an opportunity to continue this private study and thus secure the degree of skill that should be required if it is to be accepted as a college entrance requirement. In other lines the high-school men have sought liberality and freedom of election and content of subject. In this field they have not understood the possibilities and have consequently remained indifferent.

From the time of the early Greek education to the present music has had a part in education. It was one of the two great subjects in the Grecian school; it was interpreted broadly and included much that we now have in a liberal education. The subject was later one of the exact studies included in the quadrivium of the mediaeval schools, the others being arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy. Music has grown with the ages and is today one of the most exacting of the arts and sciences. Its thorough mastery requires a sense training surpassed by none and an intellectual capacity worthy of a mathematician.

Its place in modern education has been well expressed by Charles W. Eliot in his noteworthy paper, "Changes Needed in American Secondary Education." He says:

By many teachers and educational administrators music and drawing are still regarded as fads or trivial accomplishments not worthy to rank as substantial educational material; whereas, they are important features in the outfit of every human being who means to be cultivated, efficient and rationally happy. In consequence, many native Americans have grown up without the high capacity for enjoyment, and for giving joy, which even a moderate acquaintance with these arts imparts. This is a disaster which has much diminished the happiness of the native American stock. It is high time that the American school—urban or rural, mechanical, commercial, or classical, public, private, or endowed—set earnestly to work to repair this great loss and damage.

In the reorganization of secondary education that is inevitable if we are to bring our schools into contact with modern life, all forms of instruction in music, including the careful study of voice and instruments, must take their proper place in the school program. Music must minister to the leisure, the vocation, and the avocations of the people. The public school must offer the opportunity for the musically minded to secure a well-rounded and liberal education. We must take away the reproach we have been casting upon musicians that they are narrowly trained and interested in little but their own profession.

It will be the pride of the school organization of the future that it can take advantage of all the educational agencies of the community and fuse them into a common purpose—the purpose of giving every boy and girl full opportunity to develop all their abilities to the utmost.

WHEREWITH SHALL WE BE CLOTHED?

ANONYMOUS

It is easy to imagine how grotesque and out of place this article will appear surrounded by discussions of more serious school problems. I am going to write of the external rather than the internal preparation of the teacher for the day's work. I am tempted to use "For Women Only" as a subtitle, but knowing something of men, I am inclined to fear that the careful perusal of this paper sure to follow would simply be a waste of their time.

My remarks, I shall merely state, will more naturally concern the women teachers. Men, by some fortunate circumstance, are not required to devote much of their time to the question of apparel. If they are clean, well pressed, and carefully brushed they call forth little or no adverse comment from their very critical audience of high-school boys and girls. It is noticeable, nevertheless, that when a man teacher appears wearing a new suit or a particularly fetching tie, there is probably no student in his classes who fails to notice the change. However, they escape the censure that falls upon the feminine members of our profession.

No matter how clean and well brushed we are as we appear before our classes, if we persist in donning the same clothes day after day, we are criticized. You may say that it ought not to be necessary to dress up for your students but I maintain that it is at least important. I know that many a teacher works upon the theory that by continuously wearing the same suit or dress she makes herself inconspicuous in her room and therefore feels that the interest of the students is not distracted by her appearance. I overheard this remark the other day outside the door of such a teacher and wished heartily that I could pass it on to her without losing her friendship. Two girls paused before going in and one said feelingly, "If Miss B—— has that same skirt and waist on again today, I think I'll scream."

I knew just how she felt for I had too many teachers of that kind when I was in school. There was one who wore a dark blue

voile dress all fall, a blue serge all winter, and went back to the voile in the spring. Her classes were dull and uninteresting to me though she was a good teacher and taught my favorite study. I was often lost for long minutes as I visualized her in something soft and silky and pink or any color but blue. I didn't expect her to have the changes of a moving-picture star but I did want the dreadful monotony of her appearance relieved. I was heartily sick of the same tucks in the same place and the button that eternally threatened to come off and never did. So I could imagine the sensation that the girl felt when she entered Miss B——'s room to find her in the usual brown suit-skirt and the usual tan waist. I could appreciate the depression that settled upon that girl as the class began.

On the other hand, we have a teacher in our building, Miss C——, who realizes that the spirit in her room and the work of her students is affected by her personal appearance. She is not extravagant and her clothes are neither flashy nor cheap, but she somehow manages to vary her costume continually. As she supports a mother and sends a brother to college, it is obvious that she has no large amount of money left from her salary to spend on clothes.

Each fall Miss C—— has a new "school skirt." It is not so unusual in style that she cannot use it longer than one season; she usually has three good-looking separate skirts. Her waists are plain but numerous, made, I should suppose, by her own hands or her mother's. She does not limit herself to severely tailored waists, but has several soft silks, not georgette, but the heavier sort of silk materials. She varies the waists further by wearing different colored bows or pins. Her shoes, of which she has two pairs each season, are always neat and well polished. Last winter she had three dresses, a blue serge, a khaki jersey, and a black silk poplin, the latter two left from the winter before. She never wore the same dress twice in one week. In the spring and early fall she has simple pink and blue gingham dresses and white skirts which are always scrupulously clean. I believe she has vowed that she will never wear exactly the same thing two consecutive days. To make her costumes still more attractive, she wears flowers in season. Added to this, she uses a very delicate sachet, distinctive but in no way offensive.

Miss C—— is not a better teacher than Miss B——. She is not more brilliant and her subject is generally conceded by high-school students to be "dry." Nevertheless, there is a noticeable change as Miss B——'s classes pass to Miss C——'s room. It is sort of a game to guess what she will be wearing. The students immediately focus their eyes on her and she has their attention all ready and waiting when she takes up the lesson. The fact that she is nicely and differently dressed each day does not distract from the business of the classroom. One can look and listen at the same time; in fact, the easier the teacher is to look at, the easier it is to listen to her, and goodness knows many of us cannot depend upon our beauty or the absorbing interest of our subject-matter to hold the attention of our classes.

I can hear the sniffs that some of you are making as you read! I don't have to use much imagination either, for there are plenty of sniffs and other signs of scorn in Miss C——'s vicinity. Miss B—— considers her flip (the term is her own) and frivolous. She calls her careful costuming, her flowers, and her sachet "cheap bids for popular favor." She has a certain following and it is amusing to watch their eyebrows when Miss C—— appears in a particularly attractive dress. They overlook the results that Miss C—— accomplishes. Her courses are popular though they are exceedingly "stiff" and she is the teacher who is invariably selected to chaperon the girls when they go into the city to attend the theater or to take parties of the young people on their picnics and sleigh-rides. She is what many of our boys and girls call a "regular" teacher. I am not foolish enough to believe that her clothes are entirely responsible for this, but they do give her students the idea that she is an approachable human being and not a ready-made machine that grinds out dates and rules. She is interested in things that interest them—she is just an adult girl and they know and like it. At this age boys and girls are particularly concerned about their personal appearance. Miss C—— capitalizes this natural interest! Why not?

Perhaps she goes to the extreme. Personally I had rather err in her direction. I do not advocate elaborate clothing for the school-room. Teachers know how to dress but they reserve their nice clothes for outsiders who, oftentimes, are not nearly so appreciative of them as their students. At a recent convention, I was impressed

anew with the fact that it is hard to find a better dressed lot of women anywhere than those who assemble at a teachers' meeting.

In school, however, we are too fond of wearing old clothes—the cast-offs of seasons before. "It's still good enough for school" is altogether too common an expression. Isn't it rather unfair to the young people who see us so seldom in our "Sunday clothes"? Our first duty is to them and I contend that they deserve to see us at our best. They dress carefully for school and we enjoy seeing them in their pretty clothes. A fresh waist oftener than Mondays and Wednesdays, an almost daily, if not daily, change of apparel or the change of some detail of yesterday's costume will go far toward making our students more interested and receptive.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

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II. VIRGINIA

In previous articles the author has discussed the factors influencing the development of education in the southern colonies and sketched the legislation of Virginia relating to compulsory education.¹ It was shown that a system had been developed which provided for the compulsory education of certain classes of children, mainly through the system of apprenticeship, including the machinery for the enforcement of the legislation, similar to that of the New England colonies. In this paper we shall study the question of the enforcement of the laws and give illustrations of their workings in particular counties.

The laws enacted by colonial assemblies for the regulation of society, such as the criminal codes, slave codes, laws involving public and private morals, religion, education, and in fact most other subjects, represent an ideal or a theory. In most cases the actual practice did not coincide with the laws, either because they were contrary to public sentiment, or because they could not be enforced, owing to inefficient machinery or officials whose duty it was to put them into operation. On the other hand, customs or practices sometimes became so regular and certain that laws were enacted to register this condition and to give added force to what was recognized as desirable. In such cases the practice often coincided to a remarkable degree with the laws. In either case general laws or practice seldom operated in the same way over a large area. Indeed, important variations might occur in adjoining counties or even in parishes. The account which follows is intended to show that the laws on compulsory education were put into operation in the cases cited, leaving open for further study the question how far the counties and parishes from which illustrations are given were typical of all the counties and parishes in Virginia.

¹ See "The Educational Development of the Southern Colonies," *School Review*, XXVII (May, 1919), 360-76 and "Compulsory Education in the Southern Colonies," *Ibid.* (June, 1919), 405-25.

ORPHAN CHILDREN

The chief agency provided by law for the enforcement of the legislation concerning orphans was the county court. This body was made up of justices of the peace appointed by the governor, and met quarterly to attend to the business of the court. The powers of county courts were derived not only from statutes conferring direct powers, but also from custom and common law. They were quite independent bodies and often paid but slight attention to the laws passed fixing their powers. In fact, many of the laws appear merely to confirm existing practices of the county courts. The general practice under the acts relating to orphans tended to bring them under the jurisdiction of the county court in various ways. The first act, passed in 1642, required guardians and overseers to report annually to the court an account of their service; the second, in 1656, required the court to inquire yearly whether orphans were educated; if not, they were to be bound out as apprentices. The law of 1659 required sheriffs to summon all persons to bring in their accounts of orphans' estates, and that of 1740 ordered the justices to summon all guardians failing to appear, under a penalty of five thousand pounds of tobacco.¹ It was customary also for a person to make application to the justices for appointment as guardian. Such petitions might be presented at any court, but some counties, from an early date, had one term of the court called "Orphans' Court," for the purpose of attending to all business relating to orphans.

While no law was enacted until 1705 specifying the exact character of education to be given to apprenticed orphans, yet the first act passed, that of 1642-43, had specified that guardians were to educate orphans "in Christian religion and in rudiments of learning," and that of 1656, in proportion to the interest of their estate. The following cases illustrate early seventeenth century practice. There was a session of the York County Court called "Orphants Cort" held as early as August 24, 1648. Stephen Gill, godfather to John Foster, an orphan child without maintenance or estate, petitioned the court that he might have "tuition and bringing upp" of the orphan, whom he had already provided for and kept for about one year. The court ordered that the orphan should "live and remaine

¹ For these laws in detail, see *Ibid.*

under tuition" for nine years, during which Stephen Gill was ordered to provide sufficiently for him and "take care that he bee brought upp in the feare of God and taught to Reade."¹ Two years before, in 1646, a record of the same court shows that the fathers-in-law of three families of orphans, involving six children, filed their accounts. The court ordered that the increase of their estates should belong wholly to the orphans, without further charges for their subsistence or education as long as they remained under the tuition of their guardians.² The cases of two orphan girls are interesting. An orphan's court of Isle of Wight County, on May 1, 1694, received the petition of Charles Edwards for Grace Griswood, an orphan girl, to live with him till eighteen years old or until she was married. The petition was granted on condition that the said Charles "doth hereby oblige himselfe to mainteyn her decently and see that she be taught to read, sew, spinn and knitt," etc.³ So the Elizabeth City County Court, on July 18, 1698, bound Ann Chandler, an orphan girl, apprentice, "to be taught to read a chapter in the Bible, the Lord's prayer, and ten commandments, and Sempstress work."⁴ The Essex County Court bound out an orphan boy, James Evans, January 10, 1697, to John Williams, who agreed to give the boy "two years schooling," with orders to take care of what estate belonged to the orphan.⁵ After the act of 1705, which required a clause in the indenture of an apprenticed orphan boy providing that he be taught to read and write, indentures containing the clause in question are common in the county court and parish records.⁶

The number of orphans in Virginia was apparently quite unusual. Mr. Bruce states that there are in the Surry County Records, 1679-84, fifty bonds in which guardians bound themselves to educate orphans in their care, viz., to have them taught in school

¹ L. G. TYLER, "Education in Colonial Virginia," *William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, V, 221. This article consists principally of extracts from the records of six county courts relating to some fifteen indentures of apprenticeship of orphans and poor children or court orders concerning the same.

P. A. BRUCE, in his *Institutional History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century*, I, 308-15, gives data from other counties up to 1700.

² TYLER, *op. cit.*

³ TYLER, *Ibid.*, V, 222.

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ *MS Records Essex County Court, 1695-99*, p. 89. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.)

⁶ Cf. *Virginia Magazine of History*, II, 345. Indenture of a boy, 1714, from *Princess Anne County Records*.

according to their estate or quality.¹ In Spottsylvania County, Will book B contains a list of forty-five guardians' bonds between 1749 and 1761, involving seventy children. Will book D contains thirty-eight guardians' bonds, 1762-72, involving seventy-two children.² There is evidence that the proportion in other counties was even larger.

Compulsory education of orphans did not depend solely upon the law or upon the order of the county court setting forth the conditions under which a person might be appointed guardian. The orphan, his friend, or the grand jurors could bring the case to the attention of the court if there was negligence on the part of guardians, or failure to carry out the terms of the indenture. For example, an orphan complained on July 2, 1685, that he was held in a severe and hard servitude illegally and that he was taken by one Major Hawkins "under pretense of giving him learning." The case came before the court again on August 2, but the justices decided that he must continue in the service of his present master.³

Under the act of 1656 the county court was given power to apprentice orphans whose estate was too small to give them a free education. This act called only for a change of master if he neglected to teach him the trade agreed upon. Nevertheless, under the general powers granted to vestries by the act of 1657-58,⁴ they had control over parish matters, including the care of the parish poor. An interesting method of enforcing the educational provisions in indentures of orphan children by one parish is that adopted by the vestry of Petsworth Parish, Gloucester County, October 8, 1724; viz., "It is also ord^d by this p^rsent vestry thatt all Orphant children, bound out by the Parish hereafter, that if they cannot Read at thirteen years old that they shall be sett free from their s^d Mast^r or Miss^s or be taken from them."⁵ This seems to be an isolated case, but it illustrates the fact that educational practice in Virginia did not depend solely on general laws any more than it did in

¹ BRUCE, *op. cit.*, 310-11.

² W. A. CROZIER, [ed.] *Virginia County Records*, I, 72-76.

³ *Records Rappahannock County Court*, 1683-86, p. 105. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.) There is, however, evidence that the laws respecting orphans were poorly enforced. For example, an order of the Stafford County Court of October 9, 1750, declared that guardians failed to appear when summoned to make up their accounts and that little care was taken throughout the county to put the acts relating to orphans into effect. *William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, XII, 77-78.

⁴ W. W. HENNING, *Statutes of Virginia*, I, 438.

⁵ TYLER, *op. cit.*, V, 220.

Massachusetts. County courts as well as parishes imposed penalties of their own making for the purpose of enforcing the terms of an indenture. Thus the Elizabeth City County Court bound out an orphan boy on July 18, 1694, till he became twenty-one years of age, on condition that the master teach him "to Read a Chapter in the Bible, the Lord's Prayer and Ten Commandments," or in case of delinquency pay the apprentice, when free, five hundred pounds of "Legall Tobacco in Casque."¹

Since guardians were obliged by law to report annually to the county court (act of 1642) and the justices were likewise obliged to inquire annually whether orphans were educated (act of 1656), we find that county court records contain data (other than court orders) which illustrate the enforcement of the laws on education of orphans. These data consist of the records of guardians' bonds and accounts, sometimes kept in separate volumes. The record for Louisa County, covering the period from 1767 to 1819, has a dozen or more such accounts from 1767 to 1777. For example, the account of Thomas Paullet respecting the education of two orphan girls, 1766-70, is interesting, for it shows the amount and expense of their education during this period.²

The Estate of Ann Sanders and Mary Sanders to the Estate of Thomas Paullet,
Decd. Dr.

1766—Oct. 22

To 8 months schooling	13s. 4d.
To Boarding for 1 Year.....	£8

1768

To 3 Months Schooling	10s.
To the Danc ^d Master	£2
To Seven Months Schooling.....	£1 3s. 4d.

1770

To half Year's Schooling for Ann.....	10s.
To 1 years Ditto for Mary.....	£1

The account for William Lipscomb, guardian of two orphan girls, Elizabeth and Sarah Hall, shows expenditures of 10s. 10d. February 10, 1775, "For Schooling" and £2 on December 24, "To Schooling" the two children. There is also a total charge of 2s. 1½d., consisting of "To one Battledor 3d., To one Primer 7½d., To one Spelling Book 1½s."³

¹ MS Records Elizabeth City County Court, 1684-99, pp. 29-30. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.)

² MS Record Book of Guardians Bonds and Accounts, Louisa County, 1767-1819, pp. 33-34. (Original.)

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 68, 69.

POOR CHILDREN

By the act of 1646 justices of the peace were given power to bind out children of parents "whose poverty extends not to give them good breeding"; the act of 1672 gave power to county courts to bind out children whose parents were not able to bring them up apprentices; that of 1727 gave power to the church wardens, on order of the county court, to bind out children of idle and dissolute parents who could not support, or did not take due care of, their children or their instruction in "Christian principles," and provided for a clause in their indenture to teach boys to read and write; the act of 1748 gave power to the county court to bind out the children of *any* person who was judged incapable of bringing up his children or who failed to take due care of their education. Apprenticed boys and girls were to be taught reading and writing.¹

There are numerous examples, dating from the seventeenth century, of the education of poor children through the system of apprenticeship. These cases occurred before there was any law requiring book instruction of the apprentices. For example, a boy, William Rogers, was bound out by the Surrey County Court, June 15, 1681, "his master to teach him his trade of blacksmith, and to read and wright."² Another boy was bound out by the church wardens of Petsworth Parish, Gloucester County, April 4, 1700; the master promising and obliging himself by the indenture "to give unto the above Richard Allen three years' Schooling and he to be sent to school at the years of twelfe or thereabouts."³ An indenture recorded September 24, 1690, provided that Rebecca Ffrancis serve as an apprentice till twenty-one years old, to be "virtuously brought up" and given a "Compleat yeares schooling to be Educated in Reading the Vulgar tongue, to bee taught as aforesaid within the aforesaid term of Apprenticeship."⁴ There are six cases of boys bound out by the Essex County Court in the month of July, 1698. One was to be taught to read and write, one to read and have a year's schooling, two to be put to school at nine years of age and kept there until twelve, and two others to be

¹ See "Compulsory Education in the Southern Colonies," *School Review*, XXVII (June, 1919), 405-25.

² TYLER, *op. cit.*, V, 220.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 222. Cf. also BRUCE, *op. cit.*, I, 311. Another indenture, October 11, 1694, provided that the master give her "a years schooling and to have her taught to sew." *MS Records Essex County Court*, 1695-99, p. 73. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.)

given two years' schooling.¹ Even free negro boys bound out as apprentices were sometimes given the benefit of an educational clause in the indenture. Two such cases occur in the Princess Anne County Records: one, in 1719, to learn the trade of tanner, the master to "teach him to read," and the other, in 1727, to learn the trade of gun-smith, the master to teach him "to read the Bible distinctly."²

The enforcement of the terms of the indenture, as in the case of orphans, depended on the success of the apprentice in getting his case brought to the attention of the court through friends or grand jurymen. To make the enforcement more certain, the court might fix heavy penalties for neglect of the terms of the indenture. Thus a boy was bound out on July 18, 1694, on condition that the master "Teach him to Read a chapter in the Bible the Lords Prayer and Ten Commandments and in case of delinquency in any of the premises the s^d Mr. Lowry his Executor or Adm^t Shall forfeit and pay unto the s^d apentis when firee the sume of five hundred pds of Legall Tobacco in Casque."³ Direct complaints to the county courts were not infrequent. Thus two men declared under oath on April 1, 1685, that Thomas Pell had been bound for nine years as an apprentice on condition that his master, William Gemovel, teach him the trade of carpenter and "give him Convenient Learning." The court ordered that the apprentice "be taught to Write and Read."⁴ On May 26, 1690, the parents of a boy apprenticed for nine years brought suit against the master, Robert Green, because he employed his apprentice "to labor daily in the ground contrary to the Indenture." This law provided that he be taught the "Arts and Mistery of a taylor and to teach or cause him to be taught to reade and write a Leagable hand." It was complained also that the master had omitted to give him "Learning or teach him his trade which is to ye said Apprentice utter Rewing and undoing." It was therefore ordered that the master enter into a bond of 4,000 pounds

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 102-3.

² *Virginia Magazine of History*, II, p. 429. The Lancaster County Court, on August 10, 1719, bound out the son of a free negro woman with the provision that he was to be taught to read and write. (*William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, VIII, 82.) Another class of children who were sometimes given the advantage of an education were imported servants, boys and girls who were indentured. The Lancaster County Court bound out two of this class, a girl who was to be taught to "Reade the Bible well" and a boy, an orphan, who was to be taught to "read and write." *Ibid.*

³ *MS Records Elizabeth City County Court*, 1684-97, pp. 29-30. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.)

⁴ *MS Records Rappahannock County Court*, 1683-86, p. 79. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.)

of tobacco and give good and sufficient security to fulfil every clause of the indenture.¹ Another case is that of the failure of a master (apparently) to give the instruction promised. The Surrey County Court, May 4, 1697, ordered "that unless Jn^o Clements do put John High to School to learne to reade and write, he do appeare at the next court, and bring the said John with him, that the Court may then do therein as shall be found fitt."² Another example is the complaint of William Creek and wife that "Stephen Howard" and wife had not performed an order of the Elizabeth City County Court of September 16, 1688, respecting Thomas Powell, an apprentice bound to Howard's wife. The court ordered that the master enter into bond, with security, to put the "Apprentice to Schoole and learne him to Reade a Chapter in the Bible," or forfeit to the apprentice, when free, one hundred pounds of tobacco.³ The interest of a county court in education is shown by the case of one Sarah Oulton who was neglecting her son. She was ordered to give bond and good security for maintaining and "Educating of her Son," and if she failed, the sheriff was ordered to take the son into custody and place him under the care of one "Alexander Marshall under whose care and charge the s^d Lodowick hath been formerly maintained and educated."⁴ The Princess Anne County Court ordered the Sheriff on May 1, 1717, to summon George Smyth to the next court to answer the complaint of his apprentice and "Shew the court reasons why he does not Teach him to read as by Indenture he is obliged." On June 5, Smyth appeared and promised "to put his apprentice forthwith to Schoole."⁵

Under the acts of 1727 and 1748 the apprenticed poor boys and girls were to be taught to read and write. The laws declared that a failure to instruct children in "Christian principles" or to take "due care of their education" was sufficient reason for taking them from their parents and binding them out as apprentices. Complaint was made to the Charles City County Court in March, 1737, by Benjamin Harrison, that Richard Bragby and Elizabeth his wife, and Mary Evans, did not bring up their children to "an honest way of Liveing as well as in the fear of God." It was ordered

¹ TYLER, *op. cit.*, V, 222-23.

² *Ibid.*, p. 222.

³ *Ibid.*, VI, 35.

⁴ MS Records Henrico County Court, August 20, 1706, p. 48. (Original.)

⁵ *Virginia Magazine of History*, II, 345.

that the parents mentioned be summoned to the next court to show cause why their children should not be bound out as the law directs. They appeared as ordered but failed to give satisfaction to the judges. The children were accordingly bound out.¹ So on October 1, 1760, it appeared to this same court that John Warren, father of Matthew Warren, "is not able to bring up and educate him in a Christian like manner." Accordingly the church wardens were ordered to bind the boy out "agreeable to Law."² Similarly the Elizabeth City County Court, on March 2, 1763, ordered "that the church wardens of this parish bind out the children of Joseph Bonshell and John Lewis according to law, it appearing to the court that they have neglected their education."³ The following case is one in which the terms of the indenture were not observed. On complaint of Eleanor Dunn, June 21, 1769, James Steward was summoned to court to explain why he did not teach his apprentice, Walter Dunn, his trade and "cloathe and provide for him according to law."⁴ Another case is that of the petition of the mother of an apprentice, May 19, 1773, to the effect that her thirteen-year-old son, who had been bound out to James Sallas, "could be better educated if bound to Adam Wall." The court so ordered.⁵ The law only required that indentures should provide for reading and writing, but this did not prevent the inclusion of other requirements. For example, the Augusta County Court ordered a boy to be bound out "to have the trade of a Weaver, and to read, write and cypher as far as the rule of three."⁶

ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN

Illegitimate children as a class could be considered as falling under the general heading of poor children. There was no special

¹ TYLER, *op. cit.*, V, 223.

² MS Records *Charles City County Court*, 1758-62, p. 223. (Original.) It appears that the Charles City County Court was particularly active in enforcing the law. Thus "William Smett being summoned to show Cause why he has neglected the Education of his Children, John and Joseph Smett appeared, and Promising to take proper Care of them for the Future, the Complaint is dismissed wth Costs." *Ibid.*, September 7, 1756, p. 75. Cf. also cases in CHALELEY (ed.), *Abstracts of Augusta County Court Records*, December 3, 1751, I, 49. "Thos. Smith fails to provide for his children in a Christian-like manner and they are to be bound out." For similar cases see November 29, 1770, and August 23, 1773, *Ibid.*, pp. 162, 175.

³ TYLER, *op. cit.*, VI, 35. Compare also the following. "Ordered that the Sheriff summon Richard Smith who it is said neglects the Education of his Children to the next Court to Shew Cause why they should not be bound out according to Law." *Records of York County Court*, 1748-52, December 19, 1748. (Original.)

⁴ CHALELEY, *op. cit.*, I, 157.

⁵ *Ibid.*, I, 163.

⁶ *Ibid.*, I, 176.

law involving the education of this class until 1769, but they were recognized as having a right to educational advantages. Lancaster County Court on January 6, 1655, ordered that such a boy "bee kept" by Roger Harris and wife till eighteen years of age, provided the "child be taught to write and reade."¹ Another case is that of a girl of this class bound out November 10, 1696, the master promising in court and "obligeing himselfe to learn the s^d [Jane] Holding to Read."² The vestry books of Virginia parishes contain numerous examples of binding out this class of children, especially from 1727 on, when complaint was made of the large number of such children.³ The indentures, however, did not contain educational requirements so frequently as was the case with orphan and poor children.⁴

MULATTO CHILDREN

The mulatto class of children presented an early educational problem. Though no special law was passed until 1765, involving their education, instances of educational clauses in the indentures of such children occur long before this date. The vestry book of Petsworth Parish, Gloucester County, contains an indenture dated October 30, 1716, stating that Ralph Beves agrees to give "A Molattoe boy of the age of 2 years, 3 years' schooling, and carefully instruct him afterwards that he may read well in any part of the Bible."⁵

Occasional cases of the action of the county courts or vestries respecting the inclusion of educational requirements in indentures are less valuable as an indication of average practice than a series of cases covering a period of years, for the records give evidence that some indentures were made with no educational requirement, despite the law. It was the practice in some parishes for the church wardens to keep a separate record of indentures, especially after the acts of 1672 and 1727, the former providing that they must bring to the county court lists of children in their parish whose parents were not able to bring them up apprentices, and the latter giving them power to apprentice poor children on order of the

¹ TYLER, *op. cit.*, V, 221.

² Records Essex County Court, 1695-99, p. 32. (Transcript in Virginia State Library.)

³ HENING, *Statutes of Virginia*, IV, 208-13.

⁴ See Table II.

⁵ TYLER, *op. cit.*, V, 219. See also Table II.

county court. Two such record books are those of Fredericksville Parish, Louisa County, 1742-85, and Dettingen Parish, Prince William County, 1745-82. In the former, sixty-three indentures are recorded, and in the latter ninety-eight. A study of these indentures is of great interest because of the light they throw on the education of the various classes of children provided for by apprenticeship laws.¹

These indentures are analyzed in Tables I-III according to the distribution of the children described—orphans, poor, illegitimate, mulatto; the sex, the character of the book education, or the period of time in school prescribed; and the industrial training mentioned, trade or occupation.²

TABLE I

CLASSES OF CHILDREN	DETTINGEN PARISH		FREDERICKSVILLE PARISH		BOTH PARISHES		TOTAL
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Orphans.....	26	11	19	6	45	17	62
Poor.....	30	5	22	7	52	12	64
Illegitimate...	9	4	2	2	11	6	17
Mulatto.....	8	5	4	3	12	8	20
Total....	73	25	47	18	120	43	163

Other trades mentioned were: bricklayer (2), saddle-maker (1), tailor (3), millwright (2), silver-smith (1), barber (1). In the remaining cases the description is general, such as "apprentice," "servant," "suitable trade or employment," or merely "bind out" with no trade specified. No trade is mentioned for girls unless we may call "spinster" a trade, mentioned once.

Attention may be called to certain details concerning these tables. The orphans constituted 38.01 per cent of all the children apprenticed and were, with one or two exceptions, bound out by the church wardens of their own parish on an order from their county court. The boys were most often apprenticed to learn the trade of carpenter, shoemaker, blacksmith, and planter or farmer. The reason for the predominance of artisans over farmers is

¹ The data given are made from a study of these manuscript records by the writer.

² One indenture was for two boys and another for a boy and a girl, with the result that we have 161 indentures for 163 boys and girls.

explained by the fact that the various acts passed from 1656 on were designed to meet the shortage of skilled tradesmen, a condition always present in Virginia in the colonial period. Girls were usually apprenticed as domestic servants with no particular trade men-

TABLE II

Classes of Children	Reading and Writing	Reading	Reading Writing Cyphering	One Year	Eighteen Months	Two Years	"As Law Allows" or "Learning"	No Education Required	Total
Orphans									
Boys.....	27			4		3	4	7	45
Girls.....	3	12					1	1	17
Poor									
Boys.....	22		2	6	1	4	6	11	52
Girls.....	2	4					5	1	12
Illegitimate									
Boys.....	3		1	2				5*	11
Girls.....	2			1				3*	6
Mulatto									
Boys.....	1						2	9	12
Girls.....	1	2						5	8
Total....	61	18	3	13	1	7	18	42	163

*Three boys and one girl were illegitimate children of a free negro woman.

tioned. However, in nine of the cases where reading is required in the indenture of girls, there is an additional requirement that they be taught to knit, spin, and sew. The educational requirement, it will be seen, is sharply differentiated as between boys and girls. The minimum for every boy was reading and writing, when the degree of education was specified. We may assume that one or two years' schooling and the phrase "as the law allows" or "learning," the

TABLE III

Trade	Dettingen Parish	Fredericksville Parish
Blacksmith.....	3	3
Cooper.....	3	2
Carpenter and joiner.....	10	10
Cordwainer and twiner.....	8	
Shoemaker.....	18	
Weaver.....	4	2
Planting and farming.....	5	9

latter description occurring only once, contemplated or required reading and writing. Girls, on the other hand, were to be taught both to read and write in only three cases, and no provision was made for sending any orphan girl to school. Reading and writing for girls were required by the act of 1748, but there were some indentures after this date in which such a requirement is lacking, showing that the law was not strictly observed. Since orphans apprenticed were supposed to be without an estate, the fact that seven boys were to have from one to two years' schooling is interesting. This may be due to the endeavor to give certain orphans greater advantages because of their "quality." The percentage of indentures of orphan boys which did have an educational clause is 84.5, while that of girls is 94.1, a somewhat surprising figure considering the oft-repeated assertion that the education of girls, especially of the poorer class, was almost totally neglected in Virginia. It will be noted that a high percentage of poor girls apprenticed also had an educational clause in their indenture.

The table shows that there were fifty-two boys and twelve girls apprenticed, described as poor children or undescribed. In the latter case we have considered that they should be placed in this class. These children constitute 39.3 per cent of all those apprenticed. About the same trades are conspicuous as in the case of orphans, and for the same reasons. The percentage of boys to be sent to school from one to two years, 21.1, indicates the use of organized schools as an agency the master *must* employ for the education of his apprentice. The inclusion of the requirement of "cyphering" in only two cases (1763 and 1769) indicates the comparatively late development of the notion that arithmetic should be included in the indentures of this class of children. One of the two indentures of this class, that of 1769, uses the phrase "to read the Bible and write and cypher as far as the rule of three." The percentage of poor boys to be given book education was 78.8. As in the case of orphan girls, it was specified in only two indentures that they were to be taught both to read and to write, and these indentures were dated 1752 and 1779, after the act of 1748 which required both subjects in the indentures of girls. Besides reading, three indentures for girls called for instruction in spinning, knitting, and sewing. The fact that only one indenture of an apprenticed girl failed to provide some book education shows about the same

interest, 91.6 per cent, in the education of poor girls as was shown in the case of orphan girls.

The number of cases of illegitimate children is rather small for the determination of general practice with respect to this class. They were apparently treated as poor children and considered as falling under the same laws. No act specifically providing for the education of these children was passed until 1769, and all of the indentures are dated before the passage of this act. It is noteworthy that in four out of seven indentures for boys and two out of three for girls, where the degree of education is specified, both reading and writing are included, and in the case of one boy, cyphering in addition; also that two of the boys and one of the girls should be sent to school. The percentage of indentures not having an educational qualification is larger than in the two previous classes, but three of the boys and one of the girls not having such requirements were the illegitimate children of a free negro woman, a class that was not looked upon with favor. On the whole, the educational requirements were high for this class, for considering the white children only, out of a total of thirteen indentures, nine had an educational clause, or 69.2 per cent.

The mulatto class was not provided for until the act of 1765, and then only partly, when a mulatto servant sold as a slave a second time must be taken from the master and apprenticed and be taught to read and write. Nevertheless, six out of twenty indentures have an educational clause, three for boys and three for girls. One of the boys was to be taught to read and write. Two boys were to have education "as the laws allows." One of the girls was to be taught to read and write. One other girl not included in the above was to be brought up in a "Christian-like manner." Only two of all of these indentures were dated after 1765, one, that of a boy, having an educational clause, and the other, that of a girl, making no such provision.

Considering the forty-two cases where no educational clause occurs, we note that fourteen were for mulatto children and four for children of free negroes, twelve boys and six girls. This leaves a total of only twenty-four white children out of one hundred and forty-five apprenticed for whose benefit no educational clause is found in the indenture, twenty boys and four girls. The percentage of indentures in which such a clause is found is thus 83.4. It

may be noted further that it was possible, at least in some of the cases, that a boy or girl already knew how to read or write before being indentured, and if so, there would be no reason for including such a requirement. This is certainly an exceedingly good record for Virginia, so far as observing the intent of the law is concerned, and shows that in the parishes mentioned, at least, elementary education was an important characteristic of the apprenticeship system. The figures given, however, prove rather a sentiment for the education of these classes than the fact, for it is impossible to say how faithfully masters of apprentices lived up to the educational requirements of the indentures. Occasional cases in the county records have been cited to show the possibility and actuality of enforcement, but we have no method of determining the percentage of cases in which the apprentice received the education provided for. It must be confessed that this depended largely on the individual master or mistress. It was not at all certain that the master who neglected to have his apprentice educated according to the terms of the indenture would actually be called into court. We cannot assume that the apprentice was always anxious for the book education to which he might be entitled, or that he or his friends, if he had any, would bring the case to the attention of the court. Moreover, it is likely that justices of the county courts and the church wardens were more interested in relieving the parishes of the burden of supporting poor children and in providing skilled workers in the trades than they were in the book education of these children. When the children were once indentured, these two main purposes of the apprenticeship system had been accomplished. Except in the case of orphans, no penalties were provided by law for officials who neglected their duty. On the other hand, both the parish and the county court could and did impose penalties on masters for failing to carry out the terms of the indenture.

We may conclude that Virginia did establish and develop a real system of compulsory education for the classes of children mentioned; that the legal requirement for a clause in the indenture requiring book education was actually included in a large percentage of the indentures examined; that the motives expressed in the laws reappear in the indentures—first, economic, the desire to increase the number of artisans for the production of manufactured goods and to encourage industrial efficiency, to provide industrial or

vocational education, and to relieve the parish of the support of poor children; secondly, humanitarian, a desire to alleviate the condition of the unfortunate children whose parents were poor, idle, or dissolute, including those of illegitimate birth; thirdly, religious, to promote the teaching of the Christian religion and the practice of reading the Bible; fourthly, educational, to give these children a minimum of education, reading and writing for boys and girls. We may also conclude that the county court records give evidence of the actual enforcement of the law and the terms of the indentures where the master failed to give the education required; that this system did provide many children with the rudiments of an education and an opportunity to obtain industrial skill—children who otherwise would probably not have received any, or as much, education had this compulsory system not been in force; that the percentage of children who were actually taught to read or write under the terms of the indenture cannot now be determined any more than it can be in Massachusetts or any other colony; and finally that the system of apprenticeship was an important agency in colonial Virginia for the elementary education of poor children.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND THE THEORY OF PROBABILITY

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The pioneer investigators in vocational guidance had ardent hopes of establishing a scientific basis for their operations. So far their hopes have not been realized. An unexpected development has occurred, however, in the rise of vocational *selection*, for although we have not found ways of selecting an occupation for the individual, we have developed methods for the selection of the individual for an occupation with results so encouraging that investigators are inclined to neglect the older field and to minimize the possibilities of it.

Such drastic abandonment of vocational guidance is not necessary. Though the initial enthusiastic dreams may not be realized there is still justification for the belief that methods can be devised which a scientist need not blush to sponsor. One thing is indispensable, however, a thing which has hitherto not been outspokenly noticed: Quantitative statements in vocational guidance must be couched in terms of probability. Only thus can a scientific mode of procedure be developed.

I. STATEMENT OF VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN TERMS OF PROBABILITY

The first phase of vocational guidance in which to apply the theory of probability is that designated "informative." To give information regarding occupations is indisputably recognized as one obligation. This involves the use of statistical records showing rates of pay, seasonal fluctuations, longevity of workers, and the like.

Suppose a young man who is considering the occupation of practising physician inquires what pecuniary rewards he may expect. We have some figures showing the average income of Harvard medical graduates (class of 1906) during the first eight years after graduation which are given in Table I.

TABLE I*

1st year	\$ 502
2nd year	826
3rd year	1,262
4th year	1,765
5th year	2,359
6th year	2,997
7th year	3,650
8th year	4,332

* R. C. CABOT, *Training and Rewards of the Physician*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1918. P. 136.

On the basis of these figures we can inform the applicant: "If you have average success you will probably earn during your first year \$502; during your fourth, \$1,765." These figures are illuminating, but consisting, as they do, of mere averages, they are insuffi-

TABLE II*

Weekly Wages	Number	Percentage
\$3.00 to \$3.99	15	0.2
\$4.00 to \$4.99	121	1.8
\$5.00 to \$5.99	228	3.3
\$6.00 to \$6.99	457	6.7
\$7.00 to \$7.99	621	9.1
\$8.00 to \$8.99	633	9.3
\$9.00 to \$9.99	606	8.9
\$10.00 to \$11.99	1,284	18.8
\$12.00 to \$13.99	1,264	18.3
\$14.00 to \$15.99	1,056	15.4
\$16.00 to \$17.99	362	5.3
\$18.00 to \$19.99	136	2.0
\$20.00 to \$22.49	47	0.7
\$22.50 to \$24.99	4	0.1
\$25.00 to \$27.49	4	0.1
\$27.50 to \$29.99	0
\$30.00 and over	2
Total	6,840	100.0

* "Wages and Regularity of Employment. . . . in the Dress and Waist Industry." *Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics No. 146*. New York. P. 45.

cient. An average may mean several things. With an average of \$502 the lowest sum received may have been \$402 and the highest \$602; or the lowest, \$302 and the highest, \$702. For a true understanding of conditions we must know the entire range of the amounts and their distribution, preferably in percentiles. If the figures were thus presented we should be able to inform the applicant: "If you earn as much as the most prosperous 10 per cent of physicians, you

will probably earn \$702 the first year after graduation, and," say, "\$2,000 the second; if you earn as much as the lowest 10 per cent, you will probably receive \$302 and \$600 for the two years."

A mode of presentation conforming more closely to our requirements is found in the report of a study of the dress and waist industry in New York City. Table II shows the distributed wages paid to 6,840 women workers and the percentages therefor during the year 1913.

On the basis of these figures we can inform a prospective operator: "Your chances of earning \$30 a week are practically zero; of earning \$19, two in a hundred; of earning \$14, twenty-three in a hundred." Such figures can be represented more effectively in a graph similar to the excellent model furnished by Toops and Pintner,¹ showing a boy's chance of becoming an expert tradesman dependent upon education attained.

II. STATEMENT OF VOCATIONAL APTITUDE IN TERMS OF PROBABILITY

All this information, valuable and reliable though it may be, takes no cognizance of the particular degree of ability which the individual may possess or develop in the direction of the occupation. Accordingly our next task is to bring the specific capacities of the individual into relation with the occupation. Here enter the abused and distrusted vocational tests. It is by their aid that we must calculate the chances of success which an individual will have in a given occupation.

We must take several steps preparatory to this calculation. We must first measure workers in the occupation under consideration with a test or series of tests; secondly, we must express the standings of the workers in a percentile distribution table; thirdly, we must correlate the test-standings with standings in productiveness—expressed in terms of quantity or quality of output, earnings, estimation of overseers—arranged in percentile order; fourthly, we must measure the applicant with the same tests for which we have secured norms from records of workers. Knowing the test-score of the individual under consideration and knowing the chances that an individual standing in one percentile in the tests

¹ H. A. TOOPS and R. PINTNER, "Educational Differences Among Tradesmen," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, III (March, 1919), 33-49.

will stand in the corresponding percentile on a scale of occupational success, we shall be able to state in terms of probability the chances that the individual will stand in a given position in the occupation, *so far as his ability is concerned.*

Before proceeding farther, let us digress long enough to note that these steps are no different from those taken by the best investigators in vocational selection. They secure a norm, though it must be confessed that there is a lamentable diversity of practice. Some use the scores made by the average of "good" or "satisfactory" workers; some use the average made by the entire group containing both "good" and "poor"; some use the score which just surpasses a "point of reference"¹ or a "critical score."² In the interests of uniformity the writer suggests the use of scores made by all members of the group tested, membership in the occupation being defined as ability to hold a job in it. A further recommendation that will surely not be repugnant to a scrupulous investigator is that scores be arranged in percentile distribution. The necessity for this will appear in one of our later hypothetical cases of vocational counseling.

In carrying over into vocational guidance the best methods employed in vocational selection, the principal change we need make is in point of view; whereas the latter regards test data merely in the light of their utility to the employer, the former considers them in the light of their utility to the individual. And they will be serviceable to him only if expressed in terms of probability.

It is also pertinent at this juncture to point out that no plea is being made here for a policy of absolute prognosis, nor for unequivocal advice of any sort. The writer repudiated such an ideal several years ago and proposed a "monitory" conception.³ The present views aim to extend that formulation and to define more clearly the form which the "admonitions" will take—to state, in fine, that they will come in terms of probability.

In continuing the discussion let us examine the procedure in an analogous field where the theory of probability has had time-

¹ H. C. LINK, *Employment Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. P. 400.

² L. L. THURSTONE, "Mental Tests for College Entrance," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, X (March, 1919), 134 ff.

³ H. D. KITSON, "Suggestions Toward a Tenable Theory of Vocational Guidance," *Readings in Vocational Guidance*. Edited by Bloomfield. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. 103-8.

honored and successful application—the insurance business. A man of thirty years inquires of an insurance company if he will live to the age of seventy. Actuaries have studied thousands of cases and have discovered that out of every thousand men who are sound at thirty, a fairly constant number, say nine hundred, become septuagenarians. The company physician tests this man and finds him sound. But it does not tell him: "Yes, you will live to the age of seventy." For although nine hundred in every thousand thirty-year-old sound men achieve the septuagenary, this man may be one of the one hundred to die at an earlier age. Accordingly the physician states the man's longevity in terms of probability saying: "You have nine chances in ten of living to the age of seventy." And to show the strength of its conviction the company is willing to wager a specified sum with the applicant.

If we are to have a reliable system of vocational guidance we must employ a similar method. After taking the four steps outlined above we may indicate where an individual will stand in a given occupation according to his measured ability. The degree of reliability attached to our statement will, of course, depend upon the degree of correlation existing between the test-scores and the standings in the occupational "success-scale." But this amount cannot be adequately expressed by a mere coefficient of correlation. Rather a probability table should be prepared showing the chances that one who stands at a given percentile in the test records will stand at a given percentile in occupational success.

Such a table is Table III,¹ prepared from Thurstone's² scatter-diagram picturing the distribution of 165 persons in a rhythm test and in speed of receiving telegraphic words. The 165 cases were arranged approximately in quintiles with respect to both abilities. (Finer divisions are preferable but require a larger number of cases.) The distribution of these 165 cases was then transformed into a percentile distribution table, 100 hypothetical cases being placed in each of the five vertical and 100 in each of the five horizontal divisions. For example, the thirty-three cases in the first

¹ For the form of this table the writer is indebted to Dr. S. L. Pressey who has already shown the importance of the theory of probability in the prognostication of academic success and failure in his article, "Suggestions with Regard to Professor Thurstone's 'Method of Critical Score,'" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, December, 1919.

² L. L. THURSTONE, "Mental Tests for Prospective Telegraphers," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, III (June, 1919), 110-17.

quintile of test-scores fell in the quintiles of telegraphic success as follows: first quintile, 20; second, 5; third, 4; fourth, 4; fifth, 0. These frequencies transformed into percentages are the figures in the first vertical column of Table III. (Twenty is 60 per cent of 33; 5 is roughly 14 per cent of 33.) The percentages in this illustration should not be considered too binding, for a slight shifting about of the frequency values was occasioned in the effort to place in all the quintiles the same number of cases horizontally and vertically. With these qualifications, the figure at any step of the table represents the number of cases in a hundred that would fall at a particular step.

TABLE III
PROBABILITY TABLE SHOWING CORRELATION BETWEEN SUCCESS IN
RHYTHM TEST AND IN RECEIVING TELEGRAPHIC WORDS

TEST-SCORES	OCCUPATION-SCORES				
	Division by Quintiles				
	1	2	3	4	5
1.....	60	22	18	0	0
2.....	14	29	30	14	13
3.....	13	27	30	23	7
4.....	13	8	10	30	39
5.....	0	14	12	33	41

Concerning an applicant who stands among the best 20 per cent in the test we can say that there are 60 chances in 100 that he will stand among the best 20 per cent in receiving telegraphic words; there are zero chances that he will stand among the poorest 20 per cent. One who stands among the poorest 20 per cent in the test has zero chances of standing among the speediest 20 per cent of operators, and has 41 chances in 100 of standing among the 20 slowest.

We repeat that the reliability with which we can estimate occupational ability from such a table depends upon the fidelity with which our norms represent a true sampling of abilities. Furthermore, conditions in actual life would present complications involving other abilities and determinants of success—volitional traits such as industriousness; emotional factors such as interest; physiological, such as ocular ability. If it were not for unduly extending the length of this paper we might illustrate the applica-

tion of the theory of probability in the latter field by a hypothetical prognosis of earning capacity based upon an examination of the eye. The condition of this organ is of supreme importance in such occupations as typesetting, watchmaking, and engraving. After measuring the visual capacities—acuties of both eyes, size of the visual field, range and strength of muscular action—of an individual, we might calculate his probable earning ability in a given occupation by applying the formula of Magnus¹ to our measures, a mere matter of solving a simple algebraic equation.

SUMMARY

Space forbids further illustration of our thesis. To summarize the argument we repeat that the use of scientific methods in vocational guidance is a realizable thing. It does not require a radical departure from the approved methods of vocational selection. It requires only a shift of emphasis from the needs of the employer to those of the individual, and the presentation of quantities in terms of probability. To facilitate the calculation of probability tables, mass measurements should be presented in entirety and distributed as to frequency in percentiles.

The time for such refinements need not be pushed to the distant future. Much material for use in vocational guidance is already available. The publications of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics contain voluminous compilations—physical measurements, wage scales, occupational risks. A considerable body of test literature is also arising which, with adaptation according to the foregoing suggestions, can illumine the way. In short, wherever are found occupational figures, there can be found scope for the administration of vocational guidance in terms of probability.

The objection is urged by some that in stating the future in terms of equivocal chance we do not give much assistance to a puzzled youth who seeks to direct his energies along most profitable channels. Humans habitually yearn to foresee the future. They are prone to regard vocational guidance as a sort of Delphic shrine. This quest for certainty must be supplanted by a search for probability and a recognition of the limitations of human knowledge. Moreover, the public must accept the fact that no person and no

¹ G. M. KOBER, and W. C. HANSON. [Ed.] *Diseases of Occupational and Vocational Hygiene*. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co., 1916. P. 329.

social machinery can exempt the individual from making his own decisions. A vocational counselor can help; can point out opportunities and show their relation to the capacities of the individual, but if he is truthful—scientific—he will state such relationships in terms of probability only. The individual must make his own choice. All the forces on earth cannot relieve him of the responsibility.

This is an arduous unromantic procedure—this application of the arid theory of probability. Nevertheless it is fraught with incalculable benefits to the individual worker, the employer and the great society—surely a goal sufficiently inspiring to call forth the most assiduous scientific endeavors.

Educational Writings

I. REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A revision of Harding's "The Story of Europe."—One of the first books to appear containing material for the sixth grade as proposed by the Committee of Eight was Harding's *The Story of Europe*. Just how the edition under review differs from the first one is briefly explained by the author in the preface: "The present book is a version and adaptation of an earlier one, first published in 1912, under the title *The Story of Europe* and planned along the lines recommended by the Committee of Eight for the Sixth Grade. The new book differs from the old in part by the addition, at the beginning, of a chapter dealing with man's earliest history, and of three chapters at the end surveying the course of the last three centuries, culminating in the Great War. It is hoped that in the new form and under the new needs the book may prove as successful as formerly in meeting the old needs."

Important changes have also been made in the general make-up of the book. The marginal notes in the first edition appear in the new one as bold-faced paragraph headings numbered consecutively. To some this will not be an improvement, for there seems to be a desire on the part of many teachers to avoid books containing consecutively numbered bold-faced paragraph headings.

Civilization and the relation of Germany to it.—This is the theme of a recent publication¹ on the general subject of civilization and the World War. The volume was written during the first two years of the war. The sudden death of the author on March 13, 1916, left the work of editing in the hands of others, in this case members of this family.

Generally speaking the book is an expression of what Professor Morse thought of civilization and of Germany. It is made up of two parts—one on civilization and one on the World War. In Part I one finds discussed such subjects as meaning of civilization, the civilizing process, the civilized individual, the civilized state, and the relation of war and peace to civilization. In Part II a chapter each is devoted to the following subjects: "The World Situation in 1914," "America and Germany," "The Menace of Germany," "What Allied Victory Would Mean," and "After the War a New World." Though the manuscripts out of

¹ SAMUEL B. HARDING and MARGARET S. HARDING, *Old World Background to American History*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1919. Pp. xx+378. \$0.88.

² ANSON D. MORSE, *Civilization and the World War*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xiv+222. \$1.50.

which the book grew were completed within the first two years of the war, the discussion is even now a timely one since the author anticipated on many points the best conclusions held today.

*A fourth revised edition of Channing's "A Students' History of the United States."*¹—To those who are familiar with the first three editions of Professor Channing's history it is sufficient to say that the fourth edition is like the third with the exception of an additional chapter on "The United States in the Great War." For the benefit of those who desire to retain the third edition the material on the war has been issued in the form of a supplement. Generally speaking, the new chapter in the present edition is altogether too brief to be of any great value. A teacher needs much more than an outline in order to do justice to a subject so important as the United States in the Great War.

*A new course of study in history for grades one to nine inclusive.*²—The superintendent, principals, and teachers of the city of Duluth, Minnesota, have been working for some time on the problem of modernizing their courses of study in the various subjects taught in the elementary grades. During the past few months the results of their efforts have appeared in the form of more or less elaborate courses of study in geography, history, nature study, spelling, English, and arithmetic. The following is a brief survey of the subject-matter treated in the course in history.

Grades

- I. Home, Community, and Primitive Life.
- II. Home, Community, and Primitive Life.
- III. Home, Community, Holidays and Heroes of Other Lands.
- IVB. Duluth and Our Holidays.
- IVA. Early American History.
- VB. Later American History.
- VA. Oriental and Greek Civilization.
- VIB. The Romans and Europe during the Middle Ages.
- VIA. The Age of Exploration: Crusades to 1607.
- VIIIB. Colonization and Revolution: 1607 to 1789.
- VIIA. American History, 1789-1865.
- VIIIB. American History, 1865 to the present.
- IX. European History to 1648.

The work of each of the foregoing grades is discussed in considerable detail under the following general headings: aims, directions, subject-matter, projects, standards of attainment, and bibliography. Definiteness is the chief characteristic of the course as a whole. Aims, projects, and standards of attainment are clearly and briefly stated. It does not seem that a teacher of little or no experience could fail to make her history work definite, concrete, and effective by an intelligent use of this up-to-date course of study.

¹ EDWARD CHANNING, *A Students' History of the United States*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919 (fourth revised edition). Pp. xxxi+627+xxix.

² *Geography, History and Nature Study*. Duluth, Minnesota: Duluth Public Schools, 1919.

A book of miscellaneous social information and personal opinions.—For a long time our profession has been greatly in need of a good book on educational sociology. A recent volume¹ by William Estabrook Chancellor bears the name of sociology. It is rather doubtful, however, whether the sociological specialists in the universities of our country will be willing to accord the name to such a collection of miscellanies. It is true that the facts, personal reconstructions, interpretations, and miscellaneous opinions are assembled under chapter headings which look very much like the divisions of a volume of sociology. Thus the book is divided into three parts: social movements, social institutions, and social measurement. Social movements are then subdivided into factions, parties, public opinion, social solidarity, customs and conventions, traditions and habits, the rules of the game, social gatherings, revivals, strikes, lock-outs, boycotts, political campaigns, wars, migrations, present social movements, the rise of great men, etc. The social institutions treated are state, property, family, church, school, occupation, charity, amusement, art, science, business, and war. The treatment of each topic usually consists of random illustrations and discursive, interpretative personal opinions. A number of matters of rather curious character are presented without reference to the evidence. In such cases one would like to know whether the things are actual facts or mere personal opinions of the writer.

It is a misnomer to call the volume *Educational Sociology*. The treatment is not focused upon education, whether curriculum, methods, or administration. After discussing a topic at length, not infrequently the writer injects a paragraph or two saying that things referred to should be taken care of in our schools. There is, however, no treatment of sociological phenomena, relations, or principles in such a way as to show how types of education have been produced, how schools and society in general are interrelated, or what kind of education is dictated by present-day social conditions. No coherent educational program is indicated.

A suggestive plan of individual instruction in English.—There has been a revival of interest recently in individual instruction. This has been due no doubt to the abundance of scientific material which shows more clearly than ever before the great differences among pupils in mental ability, differences in the status of ability in a given subject, and differences in rates of progress. It is to be expected, therefore, that we should have a renewed insistence that more of our school work be put on the basis of individual instruction.

No one who has followed the data on individual differences will deny that we need to make better provisions for caring for the individual child. The solution for this problem is not necessarily found, however, in the adoption of a scheme of individual instruction. Certainly no subject should be put on such a basis unless the administrative factors have been worked out with great care. This involves, first, devising economical class procedures, and secondly, the possession of satisfactory materials in the way of texts, practice exercises, tests, and records.

¹ WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR, *Educational Sociology*. New York: Century Co., 1919. Pp. ix+422. \$2.25.

In individual teaching, or in class teaching for that matter, too much emphasis can hardly be put upon the importance of providing an effective testing system. This is necessary for motivation as well as for the intelligent direction of the pupil's efforts in learning. If possible the pupil should know the gaps in his knowledge and the defects in his skill or habits before he begins to work on a given unit of material. Certainly he must be shown the degree to which he has obtained his objectives. Nothing can do more to assure a wholesome attitude and rigorous work on the part of any class.

The Sherwin Cody 100% Self-Correcting Course in English Language,¹ published by the Sherwin Cody School of English, Rochester, New York, provides these requirements in testing along with the materials upon which the pupil is to work. The course is issued in the form of pamphlets, each of which covers five days' work. These pamphlets are really exercise books, the five lessons making up a week's work distributed as follows: Monday, letter writing; Tuesday, spelling; Wednesday, punctuation; Thursday, grammar; Friday, conversation and reading. Each lesson sets up quite definitely certain objectives which the student is to reach in that lesson. These objectives are put before the student in an interesting way and are so arranged that the student may see for himself whether or not he has made progress.

Those who are interested in working out material for individual instruction either in connection with the regular school work or in connection with correspondence courses, will find Mr. Cody's course full of suggestions.

ERNEST HORN

A monograph on high-school commercial education.—The author of "A Survey of Commercial Education in the Public High Schools of the United States"² opens his monograph with a brief chapter emphasizing the astonishingly rapid increase of enrolment of students in commercial courses in the public high schools of the country, thereby calling attention to the need of the study of current conditions in commercial work. In the remaining chapters, four in number, he presents his interpretations of the responses from 136 high schools in 26 states to an extended questionnaire seeking information as to practices and policies in this field. Among the lines of inquiry were the following: the length in years of the commercial courses, the requirements and offerings of technical and non-technical subjects, the correlation of the social-business with the technical subjects, the differentiation of work for boys and for girls, the occupations for which the schools aim to prepare those enrolled, etc. Throughout his interpretations the investigator seems to be concerned—and very properly so—with the question of the extent to which the schools are breaking with their tradition of being "prima facie clerk mills," a tradition borrowed from private "business colleges," and moving instead toward the provision of curricula which look out for the student's

¹ SHERWIN CODY, *The Sherwin Cody 100% Self-Correcting Course in English Language*. Rochester, New York: The Sherwin Cody School of English, 1918.

² LEVERETT S. LYON, "A Survey of Commercial Education in the Public High Schools of the United States." *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, Vol. II, No. 5. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1919. Pp. x+62. \$0.65.

training along lines other than the purely vocational and conduce to his assuming in time duties on a higher occupational level within the commercial field. At few points indeed is the presentation of facts anything but consistent and comprehensible. An exception is the listing of commercial geography with the natural sciences in one chapter and in a succeeding chapter classifying it as a social-business subject. The facts set forth, the author's interpretation of them, and his related discussion merit the serious attention of all those who are in any way responsible for commercial education in our high schools.

L. V. K.

A new text for business-administration courses.—In his book entitled *Business Law*,¹ published by the Macmillan Company, Mr. Bays has endeavored to simplify the study of law. By thoughtful selection of cases for illustrative material he has produced a genuine contribution to the evolution of that better text which teachers of business law feel is needed. The book has more than the usual number of cases to support the legal principles discussed, and contains a series of questions at the close of each chapter which help to knit the ideas together. Happily, more than the ordinary amount of space is given to the subject of contracts.

Some of the topics, it would seem, might wisely be omitted. For example, would it not be well to exclude wholly such subjects as corporations and real property and thus make room for more adequate treatment of the more fundamental subjects? Contracts, principal and agent, negotiable paper, and sales alone seem to present a sufficiently formidable program for a course in business law. It is difficult, naturally, to strike a balance between a passing glance at the whole field of law and the critical analysis of a part intended to pay the biggest dividends, but the task is worthy of the serious attempts of our best text-writers. Certainly a somewhat definite idea of contracts and negotiable paper is to be preferred to a more sweeping attempt resulting in fuzziness of thought.

Compared with other texts, Mr. Bays' *Business Law* represents a forward step. It is not detracting from the merit of his work to say that some day a book will be written, not for students in schools and readers of law, but for plain boys and girls. This future text will be in clear lucid English, and will be supplied with plenty of illustrations of the principles involved, not in terms of A, B, and C, the parties to the proceedings, nor in terms of the *ultra vires* acts of the X corporation, but in terms of the every-day acts and the every-day life of the pupils to whom the text is addressed.

WILLARD E. ATKINS

Dooley's "*Applied Science for Metal-Workers*."²—The suggestion of the title that the content is of value only to the metal-worker is misleading, for this book is in fact an elementary treatise in the field of technology in general. It deals

¹ ALFRED W. BAYS, *Business Law*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. ix+311. \$1.40.

² WILLIAM H. DOOLEY, *Applied Science for Metal-Workers*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1919. Pp. x+479. \$2.00.

with fundamental principles of chemistry and physics in their relation to our daily life. One-eighth of the material handled, perhaps, applies specifically to metal-working trades; the remainder is of general informational value to the average layman as well as to the metal-worker.

The mathematics used is confined to the basic chemical and physical laws. The method of handling the mathematics of these laws, if followed in a larger number of high-school science texts, would aid materially in dispelling the popular delusion that science is a mystery hidden in the mazes of higher mathematics and complex theories. Scientific facts are brought out in their relation to modern processes rather than through their relationship to some assumed theory.

The book is well within the range of evening- and continuation-school attendants, particularly those engaged in the distributive and productive industries. It should prove of value as a text in vocational high schools and in those regular high schools that are able to differentiate their courses for the benefit of that portion of their school population which graduates into industry.

H. T. F.

Home economics material for day, part-time, and evening classes.—The October bulletin on *Use and Preparation of Food*,¹ issued by the Federal Board for Vocational Education, is very complete and on the whole adequate for use as a basis for instruction in day, part-time, and evening classes in home economics. The content of the bulletin is organized into twelve units, nine of which cover the preparation of food, the other three being a series of lessons on "Food for the Family," "Special Modification of the Diet," and "The Housekeeper and the Food Problem." Each unit contains from four to ten lessons.

The fact that the material is organized into units makes it very flexible and its adaptation to the needs of a special group a simple matter. The arrangement of the material in logical order, however, makes it necessary that it be placed in the hands of a skilful teacher in order that it may be made vital to the housewife or the high-school girl. The teacher "selected for her wide, practical experience in home-making" would probably find her class constantly decreasing in numbers, due to lack of interest, if she attempted to present the list of facts as outlined.

The lessons on marketing and simplification of meals are particularly good. A more comprehensive treatment of the problems of distribution would add concreteness to this phase of the subject. The percentage method for groups of food used monthly is rather more feasible than the plan suggested for the keeping of food accounts. There are no standards given in the lesson on budgets. Those published by the department of labor could easily have been inserted and would have given the housewife some basis for regulation of her spending.

FLORENCE B. KING

An informative book on agricultural methods and results.—*The Principles of Agriculture*² by John H. Gehrs is a book for high schools and its purpose is "to

¹ *Use and Preparation of Food*. Bulletin No. 35, Home Economics Series No. 3, October, 1919. Washington: Federal Board for Vocational Education. Pp. 268.

² JOHN H. GEHRS, *The Principles of Agriculture*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. x+594. \$2.25.

show how agricultural production may be increased." The author believes that "the study of agriculture should carry over into farm operations" and that it "is failing of its real values unless it . . . makes our farm operations more productive." The book, therefore, deals largely with agriculture as an art; generally accepted practices that give best results are stated, but the science that lies back of the practice is given scant consideration. It is a question of large importance in agricultural instruction in the high schools whether the scientific principles of agriculture do not constitute a better subject-matter for the course than the art.

There are five sections in this book devoted respectively to "Farm Crops," 181 pages; "Farm Animals," 190 pages; "Soils," 106 pages; "Horticulture," 44 pages; and "Farm Management," 60 pages. These pages are all full of interesting and important statistics giving the results of the many experiments that have been conducted at various experimental stations the world over, together with statistics of crop production and animal production. There is much historical material of interest regarding various breeds of farm stock and the introduction of methods and processes in handling crops. In fact, one is rather appalled at the immense amount of information in such encyclopedic texts in agriculture, and wonders how the teacher is going to use it. Students might readily be forced into memoriter work quite as worthless as learning the myriad dates of the old school history.

The various chapters close with good review questions and with brief bibliographies. The references in the latter would be improved by giving the publisher of each book and the price. The bibliographies might also well include references to some of the important papers put out by the experimental stations and other investigators. You miss reference to many important ones in the text. Thus a high-school pupil might well be informed regarding the important experiments of Pearl and Surface on breeding hens with high egg-production records. Indeed it seems very doubtful if, in a single case of either animal or plant breeding, the pupil using this book would have any accurate notion of the principles underlying practice or even the best practice of selective breeding. The writer feels that less space given to statistics, less to the wide range of practice touched upon, and more attention to the principles underlying agriculture would tend to produce farmers who will think out their individual problems of increasing production more surely than will instruction on the details of procedure that must be looked up as occasion demands anyway.

E. R. D.

A guide to practice in fashion drawing.—The *Student's Manual of Fashion Drawing*¹ by Edith Young, director of the Edith Young Art School, Newark, New Jersey, gives in clear and logical form a series of progressive exercises in the drawing and designing of costume and its accessories. The exercises present in detail a method based upon actual and practical procedure. The text is explicit and the diagrams clear, adequate, and well drawn. They do not lose themselves

¹ EDITH YOUNG, *Student's Manual of Fashion Drawing*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1919. Pp. vii+107. \$2.00.

in the confusion of mere "prettiness," which is the fault of many fashion drawings. On the other hand, they possess considerable style and grace where those qualities are essential elements of the problem.

The manual is distinctly a guide to practice and to the acquirement of increasing skill. It presents with the introduction to each new principle certain basic diagrams and conventions. When the student has mastered these, they furnish a structural plan which can be modified to suit different conditions and on the basis of which the details gained by the student through his own observations may be organized. He is shown how to study and how to make use of reference material.

The book begins with a simple scheme for costume form and shows how to use it for drawing different types of costume. Then follow instructions for drawing the human figure, methods of representing the textures and characteristics of costume materials, a brief treatment of perspective, and suggestions for original designing and for decorative work. It is a satisfactory book and succeeds throughout in attaining its aim of furnishing text and drawings which show students how to study. They are not merely directions to be followed literally and drawings to be copied.

WALTER SARGENT

A course in physical education for the public schools.—It is refreshing to find two officers of the United States Army, presumably schooled in the well-known system of setting-up exercises, proposing a program of physical education for the public schools such as is described in *Health by Stunts*.¹ Naturalism has for years urged the abandonment of the unnatural "worn-out, tedious, exacting drills and gymnastic movements" in physical-education courses and the utilization in their stead of native tendencies to action. It has remained for someone to organize in detail and operate a satisfactory physical-training curriculum based upon such fundamental reactions as running, jumping, chasing, dodging, kicking, wrestling, throwing, striking, climbing, and the instincts of play, rivalry, and co-operation.

In the book under discussion it seems to the reviewer that the authors have made a definite contribution toward the solution of this interesting problem. As assistant supervisors of physical education in the Detroit public schools, they have had an opportunity to try out their plan. The results have apparently been excellent. The plan seems to have been especially well adapted to boys of the junior high-school age.

A helpful outline and calendar of the course appears on pages 38 and 39. More than two hundred specific activities are listed in a temporal sequence for use through the school year and grouped in the following classes: (1) athletic events; (2) stunts (individual and combination); (3) contests; and (4) games. Methods of handling the more important activities are described. In addition the book presents a carefully worked out plan of administration as well as charts of record performances.

¹ N. H. PEARL and H. E. BROWN, *Health by Stunts*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xi+216. \$1.30.

Health as an educational aim is coming into its own. Something more definite and effective must be done for the health of the nation. By the results of the army physical examinations we are convicted of astonishing neglect. This book by Pearl and Brown should be welcomed on account of its sound constructive suggestions for a natural and adequate program of physical education in the public schools.

"Towards Racial Health".¹—This is an English book written by a sanitarian, with a foreword by an eminent Scotch biologist, and an introduction by a Boston woman physician and eugenicist. The book is stated to be intended for adults, and it is addressed chiefly to parents. Essentially it is a body of advice on the subjects of sex education and sex enlightenment, proceeding along the familiar nature-study line, with a great deal of rather mushy sentimentality. Such books have their vogue and the vogue recurs in regular cycles. The author exhibits a singular ignorance of the ways of real boys and girls and is to be credited with an extensive knowledge of the literature of the subject. The information for parents and teachers contained in the book which is calculated to enable them to form a sensible and intelligent view of the problem is contained in twenty-five pages or less.

H. C. M.

II. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

MILLS, JOHN. *The Realities of Modern Science*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xi+327. \$2.50.

"Tentative Course of Study in English for Non-English Students," *School Publication* No. 28. Los Angeles, California: Los Angeles City School District, 1919. Pp. 55.

B. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

CHAPMAN, E. H. *The Study of the Weather*. London, England: Cambridge University Press, 1919. Pp. xii+131.

DUNN, ARTHUR WILLIAM, and HARRIS, HANNAH MARGARET. *Citizenship In School and Out*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. Pp. xxiii+144. \$0.88.

GREGORY, CHESTER ARTHUR. "The Efficiency of Oregon School Children in the Tool Subjects as Shown by Standard Tests," *University of Oregon Publications*, Vol. I, No. 1. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon. Pp. 51.

HOLLIDAY, CARL. *The Grammar of Present-Day English*. Chicago: Laird & Lee, 1919. Pp. vii+159. \$1.00.

¹ NORAH H. MARCH, *Towards Racial Health*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1919. Pp. xiii+320. \$2.00.

Nature Notebook Series: "The Common Animal Notebook." Edited by Anna Botsford Comstock. Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 125. \$0.30.

ROWELL, CORA W. *Leaders of the Great War.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. vii+336.

SCHOEN, M. and GILBREATH, SIDNEY G. *The Rural School Song Book.* New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1919. Pp. vi+87.

C. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

DURELL, FLETCHER, and ARNOLD, E. E. *A First Book in Algebra.* New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1919. Pp. v+325+xxxix.

FONTAINE, ANDRÉ C. *Nouveau Cours Français.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919 (revised edition). Pp. xii+349. \$1.24.

SHAKESPEARE, WILLIAM. *Coriolanus.* Edited, with introduction and notes, by H. D. Weiser. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xlv+288.

STOLL, ELMER EDGAR. "Hamlet: An Historical and Comparative Study," *Research Publications of the University of Minnesota*, Vol. VIII, No. 5. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1919. Pp. 75. \$1.00.

WENTWORTH, MARY M. "An Experiment with Two Latin Tests," *School Publication* No. 26. Los Angeles, California: Los Angeles City School District, 1919. Pp. 16.

D. PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION AND SIMILAR MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Buckingham's Extension of the Ayres Spelling Scale. Urbana, Illinois: Bureau of Educational Research, 1919. Sample copy, \$0.10; in quantities, \$0.08.

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

Bulletin No. 46, 1919—*Bibliography of Home Economics.*

Bulletin No. 53, 1919—*Educational Work of the Young Men's Christian Associations.*

Bulletin No. 74, 1919—*The Federal Executive Departments as Sources of Information for Libraries.*

Bulletin No. 75, 1919—*Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications.*

Statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1919. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919. Pp. 67.

E. MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

BAYFIELD, M. A. *The Measures of the Poets.* London, England: Cambridge University Press [address G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York], 1919. Pp. viii+112. \$1.60.

DAVIES, TREVOR H. *Spiritual Voices in Modern Literature.* New York: George H. Doran Co., 1919. Pp. x+312. \$2.00.

